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ABSTRACT

This collection of materials is designed to help educators teach about Latin American culture more effectively. The introduction offers a rationale for studying about Latin America. Six chapters cover: (1) Key Ideas; (2) Concept Papers; (3) Lesson Plans and Writing Skills Development; (4) Games and Student Activities; (5) Arts and Crafts; and (6) Annotated Bibliography. An appendix is included that contains statistical profiles for each of the countries of Latin America. (DB)

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LATIN AMERICAN CULTURE STUDIES

Information and Materials for Teaching about Latin America

Second Revised Edition

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LATIN AMERICAN CULTURE STUDIES
INFORMATION AND MATERIALS FOR TEACHING ABOUT LATIN AMERICA

Second Revised Edition

Edited by Gloria Contreras
Based on the First Edition, Edited by Edward Glab, Jr.

The Institute of Latin American Studies
The University of Texas at Austin

INSTITUTE OF LATIN AMERICAN STUDIES
Richard N. Adams, *director*
Michael E. Conroy, *associate director*

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CONTENTS

Foreword to the First Edition
Edward Glab, Jr. and William P. Glade viii

Foreword to the Revised Edition
Richard N. Adams x

Preface xii

Introduction: Why Study about Latin American?
Richard N. Adams 1

Chapter 1: Key Ideas 5

Key Ideas and Concepts in Teaching about Latin America
Catherine Cornbleth and Clark C. Gill 6

Teaching Resources for Developing Key Ideas
Gloria Contreras 24

Chapter 2: Concept Papers 31

Indians and Spaniards in Colonial Spanish America: Some Considerations
Susan Deans-Smith 31

Concepts and Issues in Studying Latin American Political Life
Lawrence S. Graham 40

Central America in the 1980s
Richard N. Adams 47

Concepts and Themes for the Study of Latin American Economic Life
William P. Glade 52

The Economic Crisis of the 1980s in Latin America
and the Search for New Development Models
Michael E. Conroy 66

The Tableau of Underdevelopment
Robert L. Heilbroner 70

A Review of Latin America in the School Curriculum
Gerald Michael Greenfield 72

Chapter 3: Lesson Plans and Writing Skills Development 79

Government and Politics in Puerto Rico
Pam McCollum 79

Land and Freedom: Imperialism in Central America
Stan Rubenstein 85

The Cultural Heritage of Mexico and the United States
Buck Barnes and Gloria Contreras 88

Recent Modern Mexican Painting
Neal Finer 92

Comparing Texas and Latin America
Karen Deane Moore 99

Lesson I: The Spanish Settlement of St. Augustine, Florida
Lesson II: Life in Spanish Florida, 1565-1763, at St. Augustine, Florida
Monte Adkison 102

Contrast and Diversity within Latin America: An Inquiry Lesson
Michael L. Tolbert 106

Looking into Mexican Culture
María Gonzales, Toni Lepper, and Helen Flórez Miller 110

Using the Concept of Culture to Introduce Latin America into the Classroom
Edward Glab, Jr. 120

Francisco de López y Mendoza: A Fictitious Biography
Jerry L. Bower 123

Modernization and the Afro-American Experience
James Henderson 125

International Cooperation and Cross-Cultural Sharing:
U.S. and Mexico Joint Water Projects
Jo Ann Sweeney and Avonne D. Swartz 127

Learning about Latin America/Writing about Latin America
Susan G. Bennett and Elaine D. Fowler 131

Middle America: Location and Place
Richard G. Boehm, Jesse O. Smith, and Jesse Palmer 140

Chapter 4: Games and Student Activities 146

1. Game Know-How 146

Riesgo
María Garza-Lubeck 147

Conquistador
María Garza-Lubeck 150

Travel to Texas
Peggy Chaussé, Merle Cornitius, Mary Kay Griffith, and Barbara Kendall 154

2. Puzzles 163

Seek-and-Find: Latin American Countries
María Garza-Lubeck 164

Seek-and-Find: Government, Economics, Values, Ideas, and Creative Expression
Michael Winslow 166

Seek-and-Find: Racial Composition and Social Class
Michael Winslow 168

Crossword: Latin American Countries and Capitals
Michael Winslow 170

Crossword: Latin American Indians before the Europeans Came
Michael Winslow 172

3. Research Skill Exercises 174

Reference Study Skill Sheets
Melanie Treviño 174

Mexico Map Exercise
María Garza-Lubeck 178

How the U.S. Media—Radio, TV, Newspapers, and Magazines—
View Events in Latin America
Linda D. Klinger 179

Country and Fact Grid
María Garza-Lubeck 181

4. Miscellaneous Activities 183

Did you Know? Things about Our Spanish Heritage
Monte Adkison and María Garza-Lubeck 183

Acrostic Poems
Donald Cellini 184

Personal Encounters
Julia K. Mellenbruch 185

Contemporary Culture: The Hidden Side of Latin America
Cecelia K. Buckley 189

Chapter 5: Arts and Crafts 194

Argentine Leatherwork 195

Bean and Seed Mosaic and Yarn Collage 197

Bicultural Christmas Tree Ornaments
Mark Seng 198

Brazilian Carnival Masks
María Garza-Lubeck 200

Crayon Etching
Irene Fernández 202

Corn Husk Dolls
Minnette Bautista and Juanita López 203

Dough Figures 205

Indian Ceremonial Costumes of Highland Guatemala 206

Latin American Cloth Painting
María Garza-Lubeck 210

Molas
María Garza-Lubeck 213

Maracas
Irene Fernández 215

Metal Mask Reliefs 216

Metal or Clay Chilean Pendant
María Garza-Lubeck 217

Paper Making in Ancient Mexico
Irene Fernández 218

Zafa-Casa
María Garza-Lubeck 220

Weaving 221

Ojo de Dios
Irene Fernández 222

The Piñata 224

Styrofoam Sculpture and Cutter
Mark Seng 226

Culturally Authentic Christmas and Greeting Cards
Mark Seng 230

Chapter 6: Annotated Bibliography
Ann Hartness, editor 235

Latin American Studies
Ann Hartness, compiler 235

Latin American Literature
Sonia Merubia, compiler 250

Selected Spanish American Novels in English Translation
Jane Garner, compiler 258

Selected Brazilian Novels in English Translation
Jane Garner, compiler 263

Latin American Cinema
Laura Gutiérrez-Witt, compiler 266

Mexican American Studies
Gilda Baeza, compiler 269

Mexican American Holidays and Festivities
Gilda Baeza, compiler 276

Statistical Appendix 280

List of Contributors 308

Acknowledgments 310

FOREWORD TO THE FIRST EDITION

This book is the result of the Latin American Culture Studies Project for teachers at the pre-collegiate level that the Institute of Latin American Studies has been carrying out for the past two years (1975–1977) with funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities. During this period, with the cooperation of the College of Education of The University of Texas at Austin, the Texas Education Agency, the Austin Independent School District, and other university and state agencies, the Institute has sponsored three two-day conferences and a two-week summer session workshop, attended by more than 300 educators from Texas and elsewhere.

The general objective of all the activities of the Latin American Culture Studies Project was to explain why Latin America is an important area of study and to offer ways and means by which the teaching of Latin American Studies could be enhanced throughout grade levels and disciplines. The conferences and summer workshop were designed for teachers, curriculum consultants, and school administrators at the pre-collegiate level, primarily junior and senior high school, but also including elementary school. It included teachers in social studies, foreign language, humanities, and bilingual-bicultural programs who were interested in implementing or improving Latin American Studies content in their own classrooms and their schools' curricula. The project also included librarians to build up the information resource base throughout the school system.

At the conferences and summer workshop, participants received presentations on various aspects of Latin America; selected teaching materials on Latin America; suggestions for library displays; and recommendations for economical purchases by school libraries of relevant books and other materials. Through explaining and demonstrating various printed and audio-visual materials and services at the conferences, we hoped to make their availability and usefulness for Latin American Studies more widely known. Recognizing the diversity of teacher interests and needs, the conferences were multi-disciplinary and multi-cultural, dealing with a variety of Latin American countries and topics. Participants also learned of and met with resource people from around Texas who would be able to continue to consult with them after they returned home. The organizers of the conferences and workshop also received many practical suggestions and criticisms regarding the project format from the experienced educators who attended, as the gatherings were also designed to be dialogues for mutual benefit.

In addition to the implementation and improvement of course offerings with Latin American Studies content, the two-year project was designed 1) to establish a permanent communications network in Texas and to some extent elsewhere among teachers, librarians, administrators, and community leaders interested in Latin American Studies and 2) to contribute to the implementation of the cultural component of bilingual-bicultural education. Texas was one of the first states to provide a significant impetus to the study of Latin America through the passage of legislation that established a state-wide program of mandatory bilingual-bicultural education. Aside from the special requirements for bilingual instruction, the legislation obliges many of the school systems of Texas to give greater attention to the history and culture of Latin America, which forms such an important part of our own heritage, and encourages teachers to develop new ways of integrating this knowledge into the curriculum.

The Latin American Culture Studies Project for teachers at the pre-collegiate level is part of a series of programs that taken together constitute the outreach activities of the Institute. Since 1972 the Institute has undertaken a series of activities for enriching our understanding of Latin America and for encouraging the study of that area of the world in communities and schools throughout Texas.

During 1977 the Institute will be conducting a Latin American Culture Studies Project for teachers at two-year colleges, also sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities. This project is a collaborative effort between The University of Texas at Austin and the State's many two-year community and junior colleges. It is a multi-purpose one-year program designed to improve Latin American Studies offerings for educators working at two-year colleges. Through a series of conferences and a summer workshop, the program will undertake to orient and train faculty in a multi-cultural and multi-disciplinary approach to the humanistic aspects of the Latin American cultural heritage.

In addition to sponsoring conferences, workshops, and special summer courses, the Institute has developed a number of media programs designed to disseminate information about Latin America to both schools and the general public. Since 1974, ILAS has produced in conjunction with KUT-FM (the University radio station) a weekly half-hour English-language radio program entitled "Latin American Review." In recognition of the outstanding quality and success of LAR (heard on over 100 stations across the U.S. last year) the National Endowment for the Humanities awarded the Institute and KUT-FM a grant to develop programming on LAR emphasizing the humanistic aspects of Latin American studies.

Since 1973, the Institute has conducted a program of special consultantships designed to strengthen teaching about Latin America by enabling educators from two- and four-year institutions in Texas to travel to Austin to use the Latin American Collection and consult with resident University of Texas area specialists on course and curriculum development matters. The consultantships are small grants of a maximum of $300 that are usually matched by the recipients' home institutions.

The above is only a brief overview of some of the numerous outreach activities undertaken by the Institute. Although the projects may be varied, the common thread that runs through them is the belief that an academic institution can and should be of service to the larger community beyond the walls of the university. It is in this spirit that we publish this handbook.

William P. Glade
Director
Institute of Latin American Studies

Edward Glab, Jr.
Latin American Culture Studies Project Director
and Outreach Activities Coordinator

FOREWORD

This book originated in the Latin American Culture Studies Project for teachers at the precollegiate level, which the Institute of Latin American Studies carried out in 1975–1977, with funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities. During that period, with the cooperation of the College of Education of the University of Texas at Austin, the Texas Education Agency, the Austin Independent School District, and other university and state agencies, the institute sponsored three two-day conferences and a two-week summer session workshop, attended by more than three hundred educators from Texas and elsewhere. That program was carried out under the direction of Dr. Edward Glab, Jr., who was responsible for the elaboration and editing of the first edition of the handbook.

The volume that resulted from those efforts has been in considerable demand. It has been reprinted three times and has served schoolteachers and administrators all over the United States. As the demand continued, however, it became increasingly clear that the volume needed to be brought up to date. In the spring of 1986 a workshop was held at the Institute of Latin American Studies to discuss and plan the preparation of a new edition. This effort was under the direction of Profesor Gloria Contreras, then a member of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction of the College of Education of the University of Texas at Austin. The 1986 workshop proposed the development of new chapters for the volume, the deletion of certain of the original components, as well as the revision of a number of others, all of which Dr. Contreras has effectively integrated into this new edition.

The Latin American Culture Studies Project for Teachers at the Precollegiate Level is part of a series of programs that taken together constitute the outreach activities of the institute. Since 1972 the institute has undertaken a series of activities for enriching our understanding of Latin America and for encouraging the study of that area of the world in communities and schools throughout Texas.

The State of Texas has always been in the forefront of the development of understanding about Latin America. The University of Texas was the first to establish an Institute of Latin American Studies, and courses in Latin American studies date from the early part of the present century. Texas was also one of the first states to provide a significant impetus to the study of Latin America through the passage of legislation that established a statewide program of mandatory bilingual-bicultural education. Aside from the special requirements for bilingual instruction, the legislation makes clear that many of the school systems of Texas need to give greater attention to the history and culture of Latin America, which forms such an important part of our heritage, and to encourage teachers to develop new ways of integrating this knowledge into the curriculum.

The Institute of Latin American Studies is conscious of its responsibility to improve its outreach efforts and is publishing the second edition of *Latin American Culture Studies* in the hope that it will continue to fill the need that was so splendidly covered by its predecessor. We want you, the users, to take the time to inform us of your reactions to the volume—let us know what parts serve you particularly well and bring to our attention problems encountered in the course of its use.

Richard N. Adams
Rapoport Centennial Professor of Liberal Arts
Director, Institute of Latin American Studies

PREFACE

The first edition of this handbook, edited by Edward Glab in 1977, served as a valuable source of information for many elementary and secondary teachers throughout the country. It promoted international understanding through the infusion of Latin America into the social studies and Spanish curricula. Although the handbook continues to be ordered and used, the passage of time made it desirable to revise it in order to increase its effectiveness as a resource book. This second edition updates the issues surrounding Latin America and sheds new perspectives on old concepts in order to help teachers to better relate the significance and dynamics of Latin America within the global community.

Input from educators was deemed critical to the revision process. To better reflect the needs of teachers and their students, a one-day workshop was conducted with educators who could help evaluate our institute's outreach activities in general and the first edition of this handbook in particular. Their feedback was invaluable to the subsequent revision process. Two of their recommendations included (1) the complete revision of the articles contained in chapter 2, and (2) the inclusion of Richard Adams's opening remarks to the group about the importance of studying Latin America today. Indeed, in an increasingly interdependent world the school curricula must reflect a commitment to global education if today's students are to become tomorrow's world citizens. This handbook attempts to deal in part with those heavy demands that an interdependent world is placing on U.S. citizens.

I wish to express my appreciation to Professor Richard Adams, the director of the Institute of Latin American Studies, for his support, and to Professor William Glade, along with Edward Glab, for producing the first edition of this handbook. To Abraham Torres and Kathryn Bork, thank you for your critical reading of the manuscript and your suggestions for its improvement. Also, special gratitude is extended to the following workshop participants for their contributions:

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INTRODUCTION:
WHY STUDY LATIN AMERICA?

Richard N. Adams

Most of the reasons why we in the United States need a much better understanding of Latin America can be boiled down to three. First, Latin Americans are an important part of North American society. An important segment of the United States has always been Latin, principally of Spanish and Mexican derivation, and recent years have seen it vastly enhanced by the addition of many people from the Caribbean and Central America, as well as from South America. Second, we and the peoples and countries of Latin America are extremely interdependent. The security of our way of life depends greatly on whether the peoples to the south can find satisfactory ways of life for themselves. Finally, in spite of their great importance to us, most North Americans are remarkably ignorant about both Latin America and its people. As *New York Times* columnist James Reston once observed, "Americans will do anything for Latin America except read about it." It is up to us to take very seriously the fact that our ignorance inevitably poses a severe threat to our own future.

There Is Much of Latin America in the United States

The first reason to enhance our understanding of Latin America is that it does not stop at the Mexican border. Many Latin Americans live in the United States. They are daily becoming more culturally, intellectually, and politically salient in our national life. There are, of course, very good reasons for this. Until the nineteenth century, much of the U.S. Southwest was claimed by Spain. Descendants of the colonial Spaniards form large segments of the contemporary population in New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. In the nineteenth century, our concern with an interocean canal and the Spanish American War not only awakened U.S. interest in Latin America but was followed by the annexation of Puerto Rico. This began what has become a century-long occupation of the Panama Canal Zone and of the naval base at Guantánamo Bay in Cuba. It was followed by a number of uninvited landings of U.S. armed forces in Mexico, Nicaragua, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic, as well as their presence at various times in Brazil, Guatemala, Honduras, and Panama.

The same era saw the beginning of Latin American migration to the United States. In the early years, it consisted predominantly of refugees from the political unrest of the Mexican Revolution or labor seeking to augment income for support of families in the more poverty-stricken small towns and rural areas of Mexico. These migrants formed an increasingly wide network of kinship that has literally provided a map for others to follow. Following World War II, economic conditions began to push thousands of Puerto Ricans to the East Coast of the United States, whence they spread to many other cities throughout the country.

Whereas the Mexicans came primarily for economic reasons, the Cuban Revolution led to the arrival of a large number of middle- and upper-class Cubans, principally to Florida. As the Puerto Ricans made New York their second home, so the Cubans adopted Miami, and they too moved to many other parts of the United States.

The same conditions that generated the Cuban Revolution were yielding revolutionary movements in other countries. Most recently, a large number of migrants have come from Central America, especially because of the political unrest and military repression in El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala, and Haiti that followed on the revolution in Nicaragua. The Reagan administration's fear of "Marxist-Leninism" has led it to refuse to define most of these as "political refugees" and hence to refuse aylum. Although thousands are shipped back to Central America, thousands more are staying on illegally to become permanent residents.

Although Latin migrants have fled for good economic and political reasons, they still have an affinity for their ancestral lands, just as does everyone else in the United States—Anglo-Americans, Italian Americans, Japanese Americans, and so on. Moreover, Spanish—and to a lesser degree, Portuguese—is a major medium of communication among an increasing number of American citizens. Popular music, restaurants, and craft stores reflect the tastes, foods, and products of Mexico, Central America, Cuba, and Puerto Rico. Stores and supermarkets increasingly cater to a growing population, not only from Latin America, but also from Asia. There are sections of major U.S. cities where Spanish is the most common language heard on the streets. Politicians, laborers, and employers must confront the problems of providing housing, education, and the basic needs of a new population that is now, along with Asian migrants, the hardest-working in the country.

We Are at Sea in the Same Boat

Be that as it may, what does it all have to do with the United States as a country? Why do we (no matter who our ancestors were) need to understand our neighbors to the south?

The problem is that as much as it might appeal, we are not alone in the world; we are trying to survive in the same boat as our neighbors. The welfare of Latin America is, in fact, very important to us. Development in Latin America, as elsewhere, requires becoming ever more integrated into the world economic system, and thus being dependent on fluctuating world commodity prices. Additionally, some of the major countries—for example, Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Venezuela, Chile, Colombia, and Mexico—as well as some of the Caribbean island nations, have created major industrial establishments. Besides a continuing dependence on agricultural exports, many also compete in the world industrial markets. For reasons that are as much political as economic, development in a number of countries was achieved during the late 1970s and early 1980s by contracting extraordinarily large debts. These debts, especially large in Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina, were triggered by oil price increases in the 1970s. Not only did countries decide to borrow ever-larger amounts to keep going, but the foreign banks, especially in the United States, were overloaded with petroleum-derived dollars that needed to be lent. Thus, banks, on the one hand, and their own economic situation, on the other, pressed Latin countries to borrow excessively. Irrespective of whom one may want to blame, the fact is that the Latin countries are not alone in their trouble, because U.S. banks are dependent on those debts, too. Creditor and debtor are equally involved in the debt.

If debts seem to find the two halves of the hemisphere locked in one kind of uncomfortable interdependence, narcotics binds them in another. Although the wealth and openness of the United States is a wondrous thing, it makes us seriously vulnerable to diversions for which we can pay. Mexico and the Andes have become centers for the immense production of marijuana, heroin, and cocaine destined almost exclusively for the U.S. market. Drug habits are common in all social classes. Whereas the wealthy provide a basis for the extensive multimillion-dollar trade, it drives the addicted poor into increasing tragedy and criminality. Basic plant handling provides Latin American drug merchants with some of the best income currently available; at the same time, small producers in Peru, Colombia, Bolivia, and Mexico are enjoying a flamboyant, if illicit, development. The traffickers, of course, are the real winners, but this is a case where trickle-down actually has taken place.

With all the major problems in common—economic, political, demographic, ecological, and biochemical—one would think that the United States would see it to be to its own advantage to find effective ways to help Latin America find solutions to its problems. As long as these problems go unresolved, the United States will suffer because of its own dependence on the debts and drugs.

But recent years have seen the policies of the United States diverted through an overriding concern with an East-West problem, with the establishment of Marxist-Leninist regimes in the Western Hemisphere. Resolving the debt and development problems and finding workable solutions for the drug problem have become secondary to unseating the incumbent government of Nicaragua. Ideology has so dominated U.S. policy and thinking that it has obscured the fact that the United States can never solve the problems it shares with Latin America in this manner.

Twenty years ago, North American proposals for developmental solutions were often rejected by many Latins as being too mechanical and too pragmatic and for failing to recognize the underlying ideological issues of dependency. Today, Latin proposals for rational approaches to solving developmental problems are greeted in the United States by ideological lectures about the dangers of Marxist-Leninism. In the words of Albert O. Hirschman, the United States and Latin America are sadly "out of phase" with each other.

We Know Little of Latin America

There are, then, two immediate and objective reasons why we must begin to understand Latin America better. One is that we know little about our immediate neighbors, and we have even less comprehension of why they came or where they came from. It is sad, but true, that many people in the United States think they have little to learn from the rest of the world and that the problems beyond our geographical boundaries have no relevance for us. Some things in Latin America receive ample attention in our media. A good many North Americans know, for example, that devastating earthquakes have hit the capitals of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Mexico, and El Salvador in the past twenty years and that a volcanic landslide in Colombia killed thousands of people. Fewer know that, whereas North American citizens generously sent relief in these instances, Washington's response was gauged not by the fierceness of the disaster, but by a consideration of the political threat implied. Even fewer are aware of how such disasters exacerbate national problems and force Latin American nations into solutions that eventually have an effect on us.

Perhaps more devastating in the long run than these natural disasters are other ecological processes that are receiving less attention. The ongoing destruction of Middle and South American tropical forests, especially in the Amazonian basin, will eventually force severe changes in our way of life. The loss of genetic varieties that have taken millennia to evolve, the loss of moisture, and the conversion of tropical forest into useless desert promise to be ecological catastrophes of an unpredictable magnitude. Since all of this is far away, and since we have no such forests ourselves, we tend to ignore the whole matter.

Like earthquakes, revolutions are noisy and readily get our attention. They reinforce the popular stereotype of Latin explosiveness and unpredictability and they appeal to political revolutionaries, Rambos, soldiers of fortune, and arms merchants. They receive more attention when given an alien or threatening political cast. Thus during the 1960s and 1970s revolutionary efforts were often called "Communist-inspired," and the U.S.-backed Contras in Honduras have been characterized as "freedom fighters" by their partisans and as "mercenaries" by their opponents. We all cast our understanding in terms of whether we see the events as threatening to us.

Perspectives on democracy and the military are coupled closely with our views on revolutions. To avoid being threatened, North Americans generally would like all nations to have the kind of stable life that we enjoy. Unfortunately, this apparent generosity reflects an assumption that our life-style is inherently superior. We find it too easy to feel that nations that do things differently should be coerced into our ways, or perhaps even punished for being unstable and "incapable of democracy." Failing this, we often accept some military control as the next best thing for them: a military government can provide stability and force countries to create democracies like our own. A strange idea, to be sure, and one that has never worked.

We pay even less attention to the other side of this entire process: we do not examine why countries have such a difficult time gaining and maintaining democracy, nor why stable forms of government can evolve only when they reflect the genius of the people who produce them. Stability and democracy can only be had through the accord of the people being governed. The process of manifesting this genius—called *concertación*—is currently under way in much of Latin America, although it is more immediately apparent in some—Argentina, Brazil, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Mexico, and Peru.

It is not easy to understand all these processes. To do so, one must examine Latin America itself, one must comprehend that the kinds of solutions being sought reflect how the problems are perceived locally. For example, El Salvador is a little country—its territory and population of some five million approximate those of the state of Massachusetts. There, however, the similarity ends. El Salvador's population is likely to triple by A.D. 2025. The overwhelming majority are below any "poverty level" we might want to establish; most are still agricultural peasants or laborers. As in many Latin American countries, the state's need for export earnings has led to the removal of land from peasant and small producers; at the same time, there has been no compensatory growth of industrial or service jobs. Thus, although population density is similar in the two places, in El Salvador it poses a major national problem; in Massachusetts it does not.

Thus, the poverty of the population in much of Latin America reflects similar problems for similar reasons, but of equal importance is the fact that the society is constantly changing. Indigenous populations are increasingly being killed off or incorporated as overt participants in the political economy of the nation and the world. Although the native peoples of the vast interior drainages of South America—the Orinoco, Paraguay, Amazon, and Paraná river basins—were never really dominated in the colonial era, they are now in rapid decline, being killed off and economically subjugated by the spread of cattle ranches, peasant settlers, and large-scale entrepreneurs.

The expansion and technification of large-scale agriculture, coupled with rural population growth, is forcing migrants not only to migrate to urban centers and other countries in pursuit of security, but also to displace Indians on the interior frontiers. National development policies try to increase industrial development, and, in spite of efforts to decentralize, most new plants are built in existing urban regions. At the end of World War II over 80 percent of all Latin Americans lived in towns or the countryside. In the subsequent thirty-five years this dropped to 50 percent and continues to decline. This is leading to a phenomenal expansion of Latin American cities. Mexico City, for example, promises to become the greatest urban conglomerate in the world. The attendant problems of employment, pollution, public health, and economic and political stability cannot be exaggerated.

Economic expansion has far outstripped the ability to sustain an adequate level of living in most countries. This has inevitable political consequences. In Guatemala and Peru it has involved the direct appeal to longstanding indigenous population frustrations. Urban populations are periodically brought to the boiling point by the inadequacy of urban infrastructure and rising prices of basic commodities. Suppressed and frustrated peoples are increasingly ready to seek revolutionary solutions to those extraordinary problems, and the military is almost everywhere poised to institute further repression and to take over if it feels that security is too threatened.

There is no simple solution to the problems confronted by Latin America, nor is it likely that Latin America will greatly affect the way the United States chooses to confront those problems. But one thing is absolutely certain: without understanding how the Latins perceive and approach these common problems, no solutions we propose will ever work. That alone is reason enough to study Latin America.

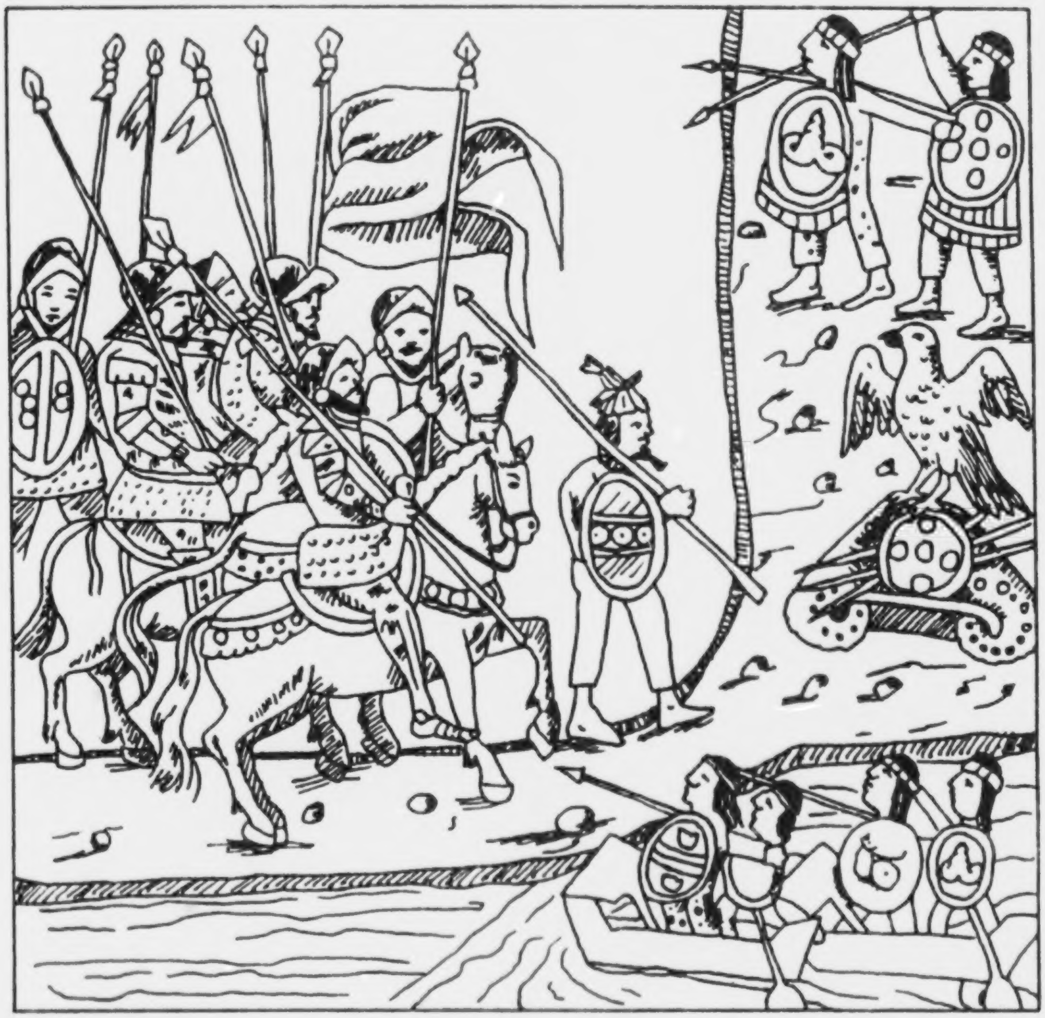
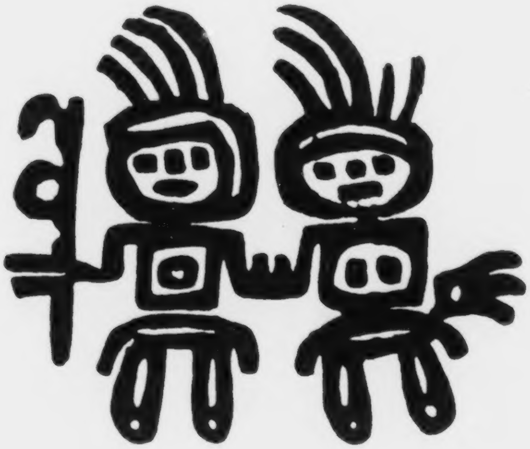


ILLUSTRATION: From *A Coloring Album of Ancient Mexico and Peru* in English and Spanish. Text by Karen Olsen Bruhns, design by Tom Weller, Spanish version by Iñez Gomez, and published by St. Heironymous Press, Inc., P.O. Box 9431, Berkeley, California 94709.

CHAPTER 1. KEY IDEAS

A WORD ABOUT KEY IDEAS AND THE HANDBOOK

Gloria Contreras



This handbook attempts to provide you, the teacher, with both background information and practical material for teaching about Latin America. Included are sections on methodology for organizing your instruction; updated information by Latin Americanists for better understanding this vital region today; and lessons and other activities for classroom use. Teachers of high school social studies and language classes and elementary-level professionals have utilized this handbook effectively.

The first chapter offers teachers the conceptual framework for integrating Latin America into the curriculum. Professors Cornbleth and Gill, two leading scholars in social science education, combine their expertise in international and social studies education to help teachers present to their students a more balanced and accurate portrayal of Latin America.

These key themes are in line with concept-based instruction, which is designed to help students relate factual data in such a way that what they learn is more effectively organized for future use. In effect, these concepts become the mental organizers or tools for continued learning in our changing interrelated world. Some teachers might choose to apply all of the key ideas from this framework to a particular Latin American nation for an in-depth study of that society. Still others might focus on select key ideas related to the subject matter they teach (e.g., history or government). However, as Professor Lawrence S. Graham points out in his presentation in chapter 2, it is critical that we communicate to students the interrelatedness of things, for example, how the political world is an integral part of economic and social relationships and how closely domestic and foreign affairs are linked.

The concept papers in chapter 2 are by leading Latin Americanists who bring us up to date in terms of the region's history, politics, and economics. Two articles from the first edition have been reproduced in this chapter because of their continued pertinence to an understanding of current Latin American issues and problems. The section closes with a challenging analysis of what should be the basis for studying Latin America vis-à-vis the extant curricula of our nation's schools. Even though the lessons and other student activities can be utilized quite effectively without reference to the theoretical background presented in the first two chapters, it is recommended that teachers read these sections to update their personal knowledge base.

KEY IDEAS AND CONCEPTS IN TEACHING ABOUT LATIN AMERICA

Catherine Cornbleth
Clark C. Gill

INTRODUCTION

The study of culture areas is frequently hampered by bias and stereotypes that severely limit understanding. We tend to see what we expect to see. We confuse fact and opinion or evaluate other cultures according to our standards, which are not necessarily relevant. Proud of our predominantly Western heritage, we often tend to belittle other contributions to our culture. In comparing other ways of life with that in the United States, we forget that other cultures evolved differently, in part as a result of differing natural environments and experiences. We also fail to realize that human needs (such as food, shelter, clothing, communication, government, and spiritual and creative expression) are universal and that only the means of satisfying them differ.

Culture is a human creation, and thus cultural differences are not innate and unchangeable. Obviously, the way of life in the United States not only reflects great diversity but has changed considerably in the 200 years of our national history. Similarly, Latin America, with more than 340 million people and twenty nations, is not a static, homogeneous unit. Regional, national, and intranational diversity exists and should be acknowledged.

Studying other cultures can provide perspectives that help us see our own culture and evolution more clearly. For example, self-government, which we tend to consider natural as well as highly desirable, was not seriously considered in sixteenth-century Spain when that country established colonies in the New World. In contrast, representative government was gaining acceptance in seventeenth-century England when the English colonies were established in North America. These differing historical precedents constitute one fact among many that help to explain why democracy took stronger root in North America than it did in Latin America.

To ferret out facts and relate them in a meaningful way in studying other cultures, students might be encouraged to develop and illustrate generalizations such as the following:

1. Complex historical events have multiple causes.
2. Differing natural environments explain, in part, cultural variations among groups.
3. Although the cultures of different groups vary widely, they serve comparable functions and meet similar needs.
4. Nations are becoming increasingly interdependent, yet nationalism remains a powerful force.
5. Change, common to all cultures, is increasingly rapid.
6. Change is often resisted when it creates conflict between traditional and emerging values or life-styles.

Since generalizations are widely applicable statements of relationships among two or more concepts, students need to develop the component concepts before they can formulate or interpret generalizations. The concepts on which each of the above generalizations is based includethe following:

1. Culture; similarities and differences
2. Natural environment; cultural diversity
3. Multiple causation
4. Interdependence; nationalism
5. Cultural change
6. Conflict; tradition; values

These concepts and generalizations are crucial to an understanding not only of Latin America but of any culture, including our own. Thus, they are particularly useful as main ideas or "organizers" for individual cultural studies and comparative, cross-cultural study.

As organizers, main ideas serve as guides to selecting relevant facts, which are the building blocks from which concepts and generalizations are formed. Study should not end with the acquisition of factual information. Facts, unless related to one another, have little meaning and are soon forgotten.

The study of Latin America can proceed in several ways. Selected aspects can be incorporated into elementary social studies and into courses offered at the secondary level on world cultures, U.S. history, world geography, sociology, economics, government, anthropology, literature, humanities, Spanish, and current problems. Whatever the desired approach, it is necessary to select and emphasize main ideas to further meaningful student learning. The ideas selected and the specific strategies used to develop them will vary.

The following outline offers some main ideas in Latin American geography, history, and contemporary civilization, including society and culture, economics, politics, government, and relations with the United States. In each section, some of the major concepts are listed, followed by an outline of generalizations and significant facts. Some concepts are listed several times, indicating that they can be developed, applied, and extended in several contexts. (The concepts that appear most frequently in the following outline are conflict, tradition, cultural change, nationalism, oligarchy, and reform.) The previously presented broad concepts and generalizations, important to an understanding of most aspects of Latin America, can be viewed as unifying themes. An illustration of sequential development at different grade levels follows.

EXAMPLE: *Sequential Development of Concepts and Generalizations*

Broad Generalization: Although the cultures of different groups vary widely, they serve comparable functions and meet similar needs.

Major Concepts

Culture
Similarities and Differences

The content and resource examples that follow illustrate *similarities and differences* in various aspects of *culture*. They provide a foundation for sequential development of these concepts at increasing levels of comprehensiveness and abstraction.

Content Examples

I. Primary: Families
  A. Differences
    1) family size and membership
    2) foods
    3) life-style (amount and types of food, furnishings, clothing)
  B. Similarities: Needs
    1) food
    2) clothing
    3) shelter

Resource Examples

Pictures of different Latin American and other families eating dinner.

Pupils' accounts of their own families eating dinner.

II. Intermediate: Agriculture
  A. Differences
    1) topography
    2) climate
    3) crops
    4) farming methods (technology)
  B. Similarities: Comparable functions
    1) adapting to environment
    2) producing food for consumption and/or market

Resource Examples

Maps of different regions of Latin America and other areas showing topography, climate, and crops.

Pictures (or films) showing subsistence and commercial farming in Latin America and other areas.

Pictures of local farmers' markets and modern storage/commercial facilities in Latin America and other areas.

III. Middle-Junior High: Political Life
  A. Differences
    1) national symbols
    2) political leadership styles
  B. Similarities: Comparable functions
    1) national unity
    2) security/defense

Resource Examples

Biographies (print or film) of prominent Latin American and other national political leaders (e.g., Simón Bolívar, Benito Juárez, Juan Perón, Fidel Castro, Abraham Lincoln, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Francisco Franco, José Napoleón Duarte, Daniel Ortega, Oscar Arias).

Replicas or pictures of different Latin American and other national flags and symbols.

IV. Senior High: Religion and Arts
  A. Differences
    1) religious beliefs and practices
    2) musical forms

B. Similarities: Needs
  1) spiritual satisfaction
  2) aesthetic/creative expression

Resource Examples

Written accounts and pictures (photos or paintings) depicting different Latin American and other religious beliefs and practices.

Recordings of varied Latin American and other music (e.g., folk, religious, popular, classical).

I. *The Physical Environment*

A. Latin America is an area of great physical diversity, relatively isolated from world population centers and trade routes.

Major Concepts

Diversity
Region
Isolation

1. Geographically, Latin America extends from the southern border of the United States to Cape Horn and includes the Caribbean Islands.

a. Most of Latin America lies southeast of the United States, with the west coast of South America almost directly south of the east coast of North America. Thus, much of Latin America is as close to western Europe as to the United States or even closer. Lisbon is closer to Rio de Janeiro than is New York City, and the west coast of Africa is closer than either to Brazil.

b. Most of Latin America is remote from other large land areas, population centers, and major east-west trade routes, which are farther north. Latin America's relative isolation was an important factor in early history, but is now offset to some extent by modern means of transportation and communication.

2. While cultural Latin America includes the nations of Spanish, Portuguese, and French background, political Latin America refers to OAS members (except the United States) plus Cuba, not all of which are of Latin backgrounds.

3. Commonly used geographic and political regional subdivisions of Latin America are Mexico, Middle or Central America, South America, and the Caribbean or West Indies. Also used are the Andean countries and the Plata region.

B. Mountains, tropical rain forests, and deserts or semiarid regions account for more than half of Latin America' nearly eight million square miles (about two and one-half times the size of the United States).

Major Concepts

natural resources
commercial agriculture
habitat
subsistence agriculture
exports

1. Mountains, particularly the Andes and including the highlands of eastern Brazil and the mountains of Mexico and Central America, are Latin America's dominant topographic features.

a. High elevations make life possible in otherwise inhospitable tropical regions. (Only Uruguay lies wholly outside the tropics and subtropics.)

b. Mountains are obstacles to transportation and trade, inter-American cooperation, and even national unity. Railroads and roads tend to lead to ports rather than to connect nations or inland cities.

2. The four major river systems (Amazon, La Plata, Orinoco, and Magdalena, all of which empty into the Caribbean Sea or the Atlantic Ocean) have not provided efficient transportation uniting areas and peoples but offer considerable potential for hydroelectric power.

3. Much of Latin America is unsuited to agriculture and only about 2 percent of the entire land area is actually cultivated. Although there is less good, arable land than in the United States, with proper cultivation Latin America could be self-sufficient in food production.

a. Large areas have not been productively utilized and are sparsely populated because they are too dry, rugged, cold, and infertile for agriculture. Examples are the Amazon Basin of Brazil, where the rain forest soil has been leached by constant rain; the arid and semiarid regions of northern Mexico; the coasts of Peru and northern Chile; and western and southern Argentina.

b. The most productive soils are used for commercial agriculture, which tends to concentrate on the three leading cash crops: coffee, sugar, and cotton. Superbly endowed for agriculture are the Pampas of Argentina, producing wheat, alfalfa, and livestock. Subsistence farming is common in less-desirable areas that have not been appropriated by large landowners.

4. With few exceptions (Uruguay, Paraguay, and Central America), mineral resources are widely distributed. They include oil, iron ore, nitrates, sulfur, copper, tin, lead, zinc, and silver, but there is a significant lack of coal in most areas.

a. Some desert areas (such as the Atacama in northern Chile) contain important minerals, but mining appears to be most important in the Andean region.

b. Latin America's natural resources have not been comprehensively surveyed or exploited, although, as the demand for raw materials grows, such activities can be expected to increase (as in southern Mexico, Bolivia, and Venezuela).

c. With the accelerating world demand for oil, this resource has considerable importance as a source of dollar revenues for some Latin American countries. In 1974, oil accounted for 97 percent of Venezuela's exports and 86 percent of government earnings. Other net oil-exporting countries in that year were Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, and Trinidad and Tobago. (In the fourth quarter of 1986, however, petroleum's percentage of total exports from Venezuela had dropped to 64.8.)

II. *Historical Background*

A. Indian and Spanish cultures interacted to produce a unique colonial society.

Major Concepts

Culture (civilization)
Medieval (feudal)
Nation-state
Social stratification
Fatalism
Colony (colonization)
Primitive
Nationalism
Slavery
Institution
Mestizo

1. The stage of development of the various Indian populations ranged from the primitive, semimigratory lowland tribes and villages to the more sophisticated, authoritarian, highland civilizations like the Inca and Aztec.

2. Motives for Spanish exploration, conquest, and colonization reflected late fifteenth- and sixteenth-century (medieval) Spanish society and included a desire to gain adventure, glory, and personal wealth, to win commercial advantages for Spain, and to convert more souls for the Catholic church.

a. Military virtues and the *hidalgo* (noble, warrior) spirit were fostered by the fighting with and final defeat of the Moors in 1492.

b. The defeat of the Moors fed Spanish nationalism and made possible the establishment of a strong nation-state.

c. Spanish society was overwhelmingly feudal and accustomed to slavery.

d. The Catholic church was a powerful religious force and an important political instrument of the crown. Conquistadors such as Cortés and missionaries such as Las Casas illustrated the complex mood of Spanish colonization, while the crown was primarily concerned with maintaining its authority, obtaining revenue, and mediating the conflicting demands of conquistador and church without sacrificing its own interests.

3. The clash of Spanish and Indian cultures was disastrous for the Indian, because the institutions of those who physically survived were shattered and the new ones imposed by Spanish conquerors were exploitative.

a. A hierarchical social order emerged with the Indians and slaves at the bottom, the *mestizo* occupying the middle position, and the European at the top.

b. Spaniards and Creoles (people born in America of European, usually Spanish, descent) looked down on manual labor as something beneath their dignity and to be avoided. To solve the labor problem, they developed the *encomienda*, the *repartimiento*, and finally the *hacienda* system, which did not enslave the Indians but forced them to work for Spanish landowners.[1]

c. Royal protection of the Indian was generally ineffective, for the humanitarian conscience of the lawmakers in Spain had little impact on the daily realities of colonial life.

d. Indians tended to adjust to Spanish rule by passively accepting their bleak future (fatalism).

e. The Indian population declined dramatically throughout the sixteenth century, and decline or absence of Indian labor led to the importation of slaves, especially in the West Indies and along the northeastern coast of South America.

B. Spanish colonial administration was highly centralized and authoritarian, and Spanish control was reinforced by the activities of the church, which, under royal patronage, was a wealthy, conservative influence. (Thus two strong Indian traditions, authoritarian government and pervasive religious influence, were continued.)

Major Concepts

Tradition
Conservative
Reform
Authoritarianism
Cultural change
Mercantilism
Conflict (cultural)
Acculturation
Extermination
Assimilation
Amalgamation

1. The House of Trade and the Council of the Indies in Spain determined colonial policy and, as a result, there was little local initiative.

2. Mercantilist economic policies strictly regulated mining and trade but could not prevent smuggling and increasing foreign competition.

3. Administrators, from viceroys (highest colonial official) to *corregidores* (local or provincial officials) were appointed by the king and ruled in his name; later, however, lesser offices were purchased.

4. At the local level, the *cabildo* (town council) offered some opportunity for self-government, but in practice it had little power or democratic character.

5. In spite of massive amounts of legislation covering almost every aspect of colonial life, it was impossible for authorities in Spain to enforce their regulations, as illustrated by the saying, "God is in heaven, the king is in Spain, and I am here in the colonies."

6. The colonial church exercised several functions in addition to conversion of the Indians and performance of religious duties.

   a. The mission was often a frontier settlement in which attempts were made to Europeanize as well as Christianize the Indians (as illustrated by Jesuit efforts in Paraguay).

   b. There was general intolerance of indigenous religious beliefs, although some Indian practices were incorporated or adapted to facilitate conversion.

   c. Education and culture were dominated by the church (as can be seen in the universities established at Mexico City and Lima).

7. The eighteenth century was a period of administrative reform, economic recovery, and increasing discontent with Spanish rule.

   a. Bourbon reforms revitalized colonial administration and loosened mercantilist controls.

   b. Criticism was directed against laws and officials but not against royal authority, which was completely accepted as illustrated by the statement, "Long live the king and death to bad government."

C. The wars for independence in Spanish America had complex causes and in some areas were also civil wars.

Major Concepts

Multiple causation
War for independence
Rebellion (revolt)
Elite
Independence

Conservative
Status quo
Conflict (military)
Civil war
Revolution
Masses
Liberal
Reform

1. Internal unrest resulted from dissatisfaction with what were seen as discriminatory trade and tax regulations (favoring merchants in Spain), increased centralization of political authority, and Creole-*peninsular* rivalries.
2. External influences, including the ideas of the Enlightenment and the examples of the American and French revolutions, affected very few people.
   a. The masses were illiterate and politically inert.
   b. The elite groups, such as the landowners and the higher clergy, tended not be be attracted to liberal ideas.
3. The immediate impetus for rebellion came in 1808 with Napoleon's conquest of Spain and usurpation of the throne, creating a power vacuum and providing a legal rationalization for independence.
   a. Ruling juntas replaced royal administrators and ruled in the name of Ferdinand VII, the legitimate heir to the Spanish throne; declarations of independence did not appear immediately.
   b. The liberal Spanish constitution of 1812 was ignored by Ferdinand upon his return, and by 1816 Spain had put down most of the revolts, although military activity continued. However, Ferdinand was forced to abdicate in 1820 and liberal measures were introduced in Spain.
   c. Creoles and *peninsulares* differed among themselves as to the desirability of independence, although it appears that eventually independence was sought in an effort to maintain the old society and resist reform. Indians fought on both sides, probably without real understanding of the issues. (Among the leaders of independence, which was achieved by 1825, were Simón Bolívar and José de San Martín, whose contrasting styles and views reflect the complexity of this period.)

D. The legacy of the colonial period and the wars for independence persisted in varying degrees.

Major Concepts

Tradition
Regionalism
Authoritarianism
Republic

1. There was no social revolution accompanying independence, and society continued to be hierarchical, with great distances separating rich and poor.
   a. The Creoles and some *mestizos* gained socioeconomic and political power, the latter largely through the military, at the expense of the *peninsulares* and Indians, who lost the nominal protection of the Spanish crown.
   b. Poverty and illiteracy continued to be widespread.
2. In spite of democratic ideals and constitutions, the tradition of authoritarian rule prevailed.
   a. No political doctrine was widely accepted and experienced political leadership was lacking.
   b. Without national unity or leadership, regionalism persisted. Regional isolation was also maintained by primitive means of transportation and communication, while the variety of peoples, some of whom did not speak Spanish, divided many countries.
   c. Without experience with self-government, republican experiments were short-lived.
   d. The influence of the military increased, as the army was the only group capable of maintaining order.
3. Although Latin America was opened to trade and immigration, the disorganized nature of the independence movement and the disunity that followed hindered cooperation among the new nations, and economic chaos prevailed following the fifteen years of fighting.

E. A major political crisis in the new nations was the conflict of interests among rural landowners, the rising middle class, and the peasant and urban masses.

Major Concepts

Socioeconomic status
Working class
Urban
Conflict (political)
Liberal
Totalitarian
National security
Middle class
Elite (oligarchy, aristocracy)
Rural
Ideology
Conservative
Power

1. A period of reaction followed the wars for independence.
   a. The new republican governments were unable to maintain order and stability, and relatively soon they were forced to surrender to the landowning oligarchy supported by the military and the church.
   b. While the symbols of representative government remained, power was concentrated in the hands of one man, the *caudillo* (dictator, usually glamorized as a dashing man on horseback), and politics was highly personalized rather than party or issue oriented.
   c. Force became a fundamental political instrument, as it was the only effective means of preserving order or of changing government officials. (Revolutions, with the exception of Mexico in 1910, Bolivia in 1952, Cuba in 1959, Peru in 1968, and Nicaragua in 1979, changed rulers without involving basic political, economic, or social change.)
   d. Agricultural (*hacienda*) interests were dominant, thus hindering commercial-industrial development as well as social change.
2. Liberal-conservative conflicts divided several countries, while conservatives remained in power in others.
   a. *Caudillismo* persisted in the twentieth century, but the modern dictator tends to base his support on the urban working class rather than on the elite and has been attracted by strongly nationalistic and at times totalitarian ideologies; examples are Perón in Argentina, Castro in Cuba, the military junta that ruled in Peru from 1968 to 1985, and Chile since 1973. *Seguridad nacional* (national security) is a common justification for establishing and maintaining military regimes.
   b. A basic conflict of interests between the status quo oligarchy and the need for change to benefit the masses continues in several countries, such as Paraguay, Ecuador, and Colombia.
   c. Military rule has at times been unavoidable or acceptable in some countries when civilian leaders have been unable to govern effectively, as in Brazil (until 1984), Uruguay, and Peru (until 1985).
3. Either peacefully or by revolution, several countries have made significant strides toward political stability and democratic government, as well as economic and social progress. Examples are Colombia, Mexico, and Venezuela, and Chile before 1973.

F. Economic diversification and development have been sporadic and uneven, with far-reaching economic, social, and political effects. (See **Key Ideas**, *Contemporary Economies*.)

Major Concepts

Cultural change
Industrialization
Economic development
Urbanization
Subsistence agriculture
Migration
Land reform
Capital
Exports
Nationalization (expropriation)
Raw materials
Scarcity

1. Latin American economies are basically agricultural but many are rapidly industrializing, like Venezuela, Brazil, and Mexico.
   a. About half of the labor force is engaged in agriculture, but food production has not kept pace with population growth.
   b. Agricultural output is low, due in part to lack of modern equipment and scientific knowledge and to land tenure systems with relatively few, large, and underutilized estates and many small, ineffi-

cient subsistence holdings.

c. Pressures for land reform are almost constant, and reforms have been formally legislated in some countries, but governments have been unable or unwilling to move effectively against vested interests, with the exceptions of Cuba and Peru, and Chile between 1967 and 1973.

2. Latin American economies remain heavily dependent on exports of agricultural products and raw materials, with the United States being Latin America's most important trading partner.

3. The industrial sector of Latin American economies is growing and is increasingly important.

a. Most manufacturing is in light industries; development of heavy industry has been hampered by the scarcity of capital, technical skills, and sources of power (although some hydroelectric plants have been constructed). These problems are being rapidly overcome in Brazil, Mexico, and Venezuela.

b. Most governments are committed to and directly involved in economic development. Examples are Brazil, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela.

c. Foreign investment, once largely British and now North American and, increasingly, Japanese, has been crucial to economic diversification and development but has aroused nationalistic resentment of foreign exploitation. Several countries have recently attained sufficient bargaining power to assume greater control over their natural resources, and some have been able to nationalize foreign industries, as in Venezuela and Peru.

4. Industrialization has stimulated the development of large cities and an urban working middle class that has become an important political force in many countries, like Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay. Industrialization and urbanization have also aggravated major urban problems like pollution, traffic congestion, poor public services, and slums.

a. Improvements in transportation, communication, and standards of living have aroused the masses to desire a better way of life (revolution of rising expectations). Per capita income is above that in much of Africa and Asia but far below that of North America and Western Europe; however, low incomes predominate, so that many people are much poorer than average incomes indicate.

b. Urban squatter settlements housing millions of urban poor have become an integral part of virtually every large city. In Peru these slums are called *barriadas*; in Chile, *callampas*; in Brazil, *favelas*; in Argentina, *villas miserias*.

c. A major question for the future stability of Latin American society is whether solutions for its pressing urban economic and social problems can keep pace with the demands of rising expectations.

III. *Contemporary Society and the Family*

A. Population distribution and growth rates vary within and among nations.

Major Concepts

Population growth
Population density
Family planning
Isolation
Regionalism
Urban
Rural
Migration
Standard of living
Values

1. A few Latin American countries—Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, El Salvador—have population densities as great as or greater than that of the United States. In contrast, Paraguay and Bolivia have about one-fifth as many people per square mile as the United States.

2. The large population centers are in the highlands and port cities, separated by sparsely populated regions. Physical isolation has perpetuated political and cultural regionalism in the absence of effective communication and unification of the population.

3. More than 60 percent of the people now live in urban areas (cities of 20,000 or more), compared to 1960, when less than half of the pop-

ulation was urban, and movement to the major cities continues largely motivated by desire for better economic and educational opportunities.

a. Increasing urbanization presents new problems related to jobs, housing, and public services, in addition to traditional concern with land reform.

b. Movement to areas offering seasonal farm work and to frontier or unoccupied regions also suggests the inadequacies or unattractiveness of traditional rural living, as does the increasing rate of illegal Latin American immigration into the United States.

4. Latin America's rate of population growth is one of the highest in the world. This relatively recent, rapid increase will seriously aggravate socioeconomic conditions if agricultural and industrial growth and social reform do not keep pace.

a. A high birth rate combined with decreasing infant mortality has resulted in high dependency ratios. With 40 percent of the population under fifteen years of age and largely economically unproductive, large expenditures in areas such as education and welfare are needed.

b. When most of a nation's capital must be spent on consumer goods and services, there is an insufficient amount available for investment and economic expansion to provide for future needs and improve standards of living.

c. Because family values support high fertility rates, a change in population trends requires social and cultural change. Opposition to family planning also comes from the Roman Catholic Church, politicians who feel the issue is too risky politically, and economists who foresee an increased demand for labor. (Whereas a significant decline in population growth rates—below 2 percent—had been achieved by 1981 only in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, by 1987, ten nations had achieved such rates and another five had population growth rates below 2.5 percent.)

B. Latin American populations are racially mixed, and although reliable statistics on racial composition are impossible to obtain, several groups of countries with similar population characteristics may be identified.

Major Concepts

Similarities and differences
Diversity
Race

1. More than half the population of Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, and Argentina is of European origin, compared to less than 10 percent of the population of most Central American and Caribbean nations, Bolivia, and Paraguay.

2. In Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Cuba, Brazil, and Venezuela, at least one-third of the people are of African origin.

3. The *mestizo* population is scattered from Brazil and Chile to Mexico; Amerindians tend to be concentrated in two distinct blocks—south and eastern Mexico, Guatemala, western El Salvador and Honduras; and in the Andean countries of Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia.

4. Socioeconomic and cultural characteristics are usually most important in determining "race." For example, an Indian may become mestizo or "white" by adopting the speech, education, dress, and occupation of that group.

C. Relations among the many ethnic groups vary from nation to nation, although in general there tends to be less overt racial discrimination and hostility than in the United States.

Major Concepts

Intergroup relations
Prejudice
Segregation
Social mobility
Discrimination
Multiracial

1. Indians were, and to a lesser extent continue to be, considered inferior; however, in a few nations, like Mexico and Peru, the Indian heritage is now respected and a source of pride.

2. Brazil is an example of a relatively successful multiracial society.

a. There is no legal or institutional racial segregation.

b. Prejudice and discrimination tend to be socioeconomic rather than racial, although a large proportion of the Negro population is in the lower class. However, upward mobility is not commonplace because economic and educational opportunities are rarely available to the poor.

D. Upper and lower sectors or classes may be identified, with more mobility within than between them.

Major Concepts

Socioeconomic status
Social mobility
Working class
Subsistence
Slum
Provincial
Middle class
Cosmopolitan
White collar
Upper class
Tradition
Manual labor

1. Among the lower classes, total wealth is very small and insufficient for obtaining middle and upper class amenities such as houses, cars, and vacations.

2. The upper class places a negative value on manual labor, and whereas wealth may enable one to gain prestige symbols, wealth alone is not enough. "Correct" speech, behavior, and family are necessary, as is the power to influence other people.

3. The growing middle class tends to identify with upper-class values and attitudes. It is also prestige oriented and disdains manual labor. Mobility is greatest in the cities, where educational and economic opportunities are most available.

E. Various socioeconomic groups may be more specifically identified as peasants and rural laborers, urban working class, urban unemployed, urban middle class, landed upper class, and business-oriented, urban upper class.

1. Peasants and rural laborers are usually illiterate and poor, living at a subsistence level.

2. The urban poor, the workers and unemployed, inhabit the squatter settlements and slums surrounding major cities. More aware of how others live than the rural poor, these people could serve to swell the ranks of revolutionary movements, as they did for Allende in Chile, the military in Peru, Castro in Cuba, and the Sandinista National Liberation Front in Nicaragua.

3. The urban middle class includes growing numbers of white-collar workers, government employees, military officers, political leaders, small business owners, and professional people. This group tends to be materially comfortable, literate, and politically active.

4. Wealth and strong identification with the extended family characterize the traditional landowning upper class, whereas business and industry have produced a more cosmopolitan, wealthy group with different interests and far fewer ties with the church.

F. The extended family, including several generations and extensive lateral relationships, is of considerable importance in all sectors of Latin American society.

Major Concepts

Cultural change
Nuclear family
Extended family
Patriarchy

The family cannot be considered apart from friends and associates, and *confianza* (trust) and *compadrazgo* (godfather) relationships frequently extend across classes. Thus the family is not an independent unit, but part of a web of extended family and friendship relations.

a. For the upper class these relationships are basic to prestige and power, whereas in the lower groups they may be essential to survival.

b. The middle class, especially in the cities, tends to have smaller family groups and fewer children.

2. While there are strong ties of loyalty and responsibility among brothers and sisters, the position of the husband and father today depends to a large extent on his ability to support the family economically. Where he is unable to provide for the family, the mother tends to

be dominant.

a. Men and boys have considerable freedom outside the home in clubs and informal social groups.

b. Girls may still be carefully chaperoned in countries like Peru and Mexico, whereas in others, like Chile and Argentina, they may follow dating patterns similar to those of the United States or Europe. Although the number is still small, more married women work outside the home.

c. Urban middle-class women are finding more opportunity for social activity and work outside the home and church. They are increasingly pursuing careers in business and politics, and as teachers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, and engineers. A number of women now hold prominent political office. Their number, however, remains very small.

IV. *Contemporary Culture*

A. Values, ideals, and creative expression

Major Concepts

Diversity
Cultural change
Tradition
Immigration
Nationalism
Fatalism
Conflict (cultural)
Values
Secularization
Materialism
Individualism
Progress

1. Culturally, Latin America is a varying blend of diverse Indian, Spanish-European, African, and, more recently, North American elements.

a. Indian foods, languages, architecture, art forms, handicrafts such as weaving and ceramics, and religious beliefs persist in some areas, as do characteristics such as fatalism or apathy, courtesy or submissiveness, and persistence.

b. The degree of present-day Indian influence depends to a large extent on the area and the attitude of the dominant group, which is often non-Indian and sometimes anti-Indian.

c. Spanish conquistadors and early colonists brought their medieval, ecclesiastically dominated culture to the New World. Early immigration to the colonies was restricted to loyal, Catholic Spaniards, and a degree of cultural unity resulted from the Iberian heritage (such as language, religion, town planning, dress, legal system) and an agrarian economy.

d. New European ideas and influence did not make a significant impact until the late eighteenth century, and they were predominantly French. Nineteenth-century immigration originated primarily from southern European (Germany and Italy), and later included Chinese and Japanese groups. European immigration helped to maintain cultural contacts with Europe, especially among southern South Americans.

e. African influences are evident in language, religious practices, music, and dance.

f. U.S. influence has been strong in the twentieth century and has produced intellectual as well as nationalistic reactions. (U.S. culture is often seen as materialistic, with emphasis on scientific, mechanical, or technological things rather than philosophy and the arts; some Latin American intellectuals fear that U.S. influence is lowering their cultural standards. U.S. movies are seen in Latin American cities, as is television programming sent by communications satellites; our informality and acceptance of women's rights have had an impact on Latin American ways of life, clashing with traditional values.)

2. Culture is both material and nonmaterial; the latter has traditionally received greater emphasis in Latin America (in contrast to the United States). However, as economies are diversified, the trend toward greater consumption of material goods increases (as in Venezuela). Still, several common Latin American traits or values may be identified, although there are variations among nations and within them.

a. Individualism is evident in strong feelings of pride and honor. For men, this often means *machismo*, an extreme emphasis on masculine qualities and male dominance.

b. Personalism, the nature of interpersonal relationships in business and politics as well as among family and friends, remains strong, in contrast to the impersonality of much of U.S. life.

c. Formalism, a very courteous manner with equals or superiors, almost a ritual of politeness, as illustrated in public speaking and literary styles, seems less important than previously.

d. Fatalism may also be of decreasing importance. Related to Catholic fatalism, the feeling that certain events are inevitable is weaker among the upper classes but prevalent among the poor, who are less able to care for their own needs.

3. Cultural conflict characterizes much of Latin America as a result of changes associated with industrialization, urbanization, secularization, emerging middle class, and new ideologies.

a. Traditional values and attitudes, such as the prestige and influence of the landed aristocracy and the idea of live and let live (rather than the goals of achievement and progress), are slowly giving way.

b. The emphasis placed on philosophy and the arts is now making room for consideration of scientific and "practical" subjects.

c. A significant cultural gap remains between upper and lower classes, especially isolating non-Spanish-speaking Indian groups.

4. Values, goals, and ideals are illustrated in Latin America's art, architecture, music, and literature.

a. Mexico's artists and architects have combined Indian influences and pre-Conquest designs with modern ideas and forms, as illustrated by Rivera's murals and the library at the National Autonomous University of Mexico.

b. Modern architecture, especially in Mexico and Brazil, is bold and imaginative in its use of form, color, and materials, as illustrated by the campus of the National Autonomous University of Mexico and Brasília, the modern capital of Brazil.

c. Latin American music reflects the blending of Indian, African, and Spanish-European heritages and the emergence of unique styles, which vary greatly from region to region.

d. Poetry has been a favorite form of literary expression, and drama has also been popular since pre-Columbian times. Literature is often politically oriented, and it is common for political leaders to be "men of letters" rather than professional politicians. José Martí, 1853-1895, the leading figure in Cuba's struggle for independence, is known for a variety of writings that championed the underdog. A romantic liberal, without hatred or bitterness, he was anticlerical and outspokenly in favor of responsible independence. Nicaragua's poet Rubén Darío, 1867-1916, was the first outstanding representative of an original Latin American literature. Four Latin American writers have won the coveted Nobel Prize for literature: Gabriela Mistral from Chile in 1945; Miguel Angel Asturias from Guatemala in 1967; Pablo Neruda from Chile in 1971; and Gabriel García Márquez from Colombia in 1982.

B. Religion

Major Concepts

Conflict (politico-religious)
Secularization
Status quo
Progress
Reform

1. The role of the Roman Catholic Church in Latin America is changing as society becomes more secular.

a. Earlier, the Roman Catholic Church (with the landowning elite and the military) supported the status quo and held substantial political power.

b. Bitter church-state conflicts have divided several nations in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The extreme of these conflicts is Mexico, where the church lost all but its religious influence and functions, although it still plays an important role in private education.

c. Many Latin Americans are only nominally Catholic. In general, church support is strongest among women and the upper class and in rural areas.

d. There is great diversity of political and social views within the church. For example, in some nations the Roman Catholic Church has become a progressive force with the practice of the theology of liberation, opposing dictatorship, favoring land reform, and advocating greater respect for human rights. Many Catholic clergy continue to sharply criticize Latin American governments for failing to provide adequate services for the poor.

2. Indigenous religious practices stemming from the pre-Conquest period and others brought over with slaves from Africa can still be found in much of Latin America, as exemplified in the voodoo of Brazil and the *curandero* (witch doctor) in countries like Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, and Peru.

3. Evangelical Protestant sects have increased in size and influence in recent decades in several nations, particularly Brazil and Chile.

C. Education

Major Concepts

Tradition
Humanities
Industrialization
Resources
Socioeconomic status
Social mobility
Elite middle class
Politics

1. Education for the elite, with emphasis on the humanities and law, has a long tradition in Latin America, closely associated with the Roman Catholic Church.

2. At the university level, expanding enrollments have greatly taxed generally insufficient physical and human resources. In the drive for industrial development, greater emphasis is given to scientific, technical, and administrative fields, with many governments sending students abroad for graduate work in industrialized nations.

a. Children from wealthier families, who usually attend private schools, have an advantage over those who have attended public schools in reaching and completing higher grade levels. Thus class differences are accentuated to some extent by differential access to education. Whereas only four countries had more than 10 percent of the 18 to 23 age group enrolled in school in 1960, all countries except Haiti and Trinidad and Tobago had rates higher than 10 percent in 1985 .

b. Universities are often centers of political activity, the training ground for future leaders, meeting places for those committed to reform, or platforms for political spokesmen.

3. Although primary education (equivalent to grades 1-6) officially tends to be free and compulsory, lack of facilities, teachers, and individual motivation—and multiple languages, poverty, and rigid curricula—resulst in only about 40 percent of all school-age children completing the elementary grades in such countries as Haiti and Guatemala.

a. Educational deficiencies are more acute in isolated and rural areas.

b. Given wide variations among nations, a large proportion of the adult population is illiterate, from less than 10 percent in Argentina, Cuba, Chile, Uruguay, and Paraguay to more than 63.1 percent in Haiti in 1982 and 43.4 percent in Guatemala in 1986.

c. Rapidly increasing populations aggravate the already-formidable task of providing adequate educational opportunities. New educational strategies, such as educational television and radio and the open university model, are being used in several countries (such as Colombia, El Salvador, Mexico) to extend educational opportunities to more people and to improve the quality of instruction. In the major cities, many part-time students attend special evening school sessions.

d. Long-range programs, usually under central government management, are hindered by political instability and lack of financial resources. The percentage of government expenditures for education varies, but education is generally a priority in overall development efforts. For example, in Haiti in 1982, 9.5 percent of total government expenditure went to education; in Costa Rica in 1983, the education system received 22 percent of the total budget. As a percentage of the gross domestic product, central government expenditures for education in 1984–85 were generally lower than in 1980–81, which tends to indicate that in most countries per capita educational fiscal expenditures are at present lower than at the beginning of the eighties, a result of the acute financial instability experienced in the last decade.

4. In spite of educational deficiencies, percentages of illiteracy are decreasing, and more widespread educational opportunities stimulate growth of the middle class, a mild leveling of social status, and a common background that tends to strengthen national unity.

5. There is an urgent need for increased quantity and quality in education at all levels in order to achieve socioeconomic goals and stability. A specific need exists in middle-level labor production, and the current system is unable to satisfy that need.

V. *Contemporary Economies*

A. Economic development is of primary concern throughout Latin America. The problem of challenge is to raise per capita income and improve the welfare of a large population that is growing more rapidly than that of any other world region.

Major Concepts

Economic development
Progress
Investment
Exploitation
Cooperation
Per capita income
Market
Capital
Interdependence

1. Compared to the United States and Western Europe, most of Latin America is underdeveloped, although its position relative to Asia and Africa is much more favorable. However, Latin Americans tend to compare themselves to the United States, with obvious dissatisfaction.

a. Latin America's underdevelopment is characterized by low per capita income, uneven distribution of wealth, low-productivity agriculture, export-dependence, insufficient housing and educational facilities, deficient diet, and rapid population growth.

b. Since 1960, Latin America has experienced considerable economic expansion, and although exports have been increasingly diversified, they still consist largely of raw materials, which are not particularly stable sources of income. Economic progress has been most evident in the larger, more populous nations like Brazil and Mexico and in those with greater natural resources, like Venezuela.

2. The Alliance for Progress, begun in 1961, was an attempt to coordinate and stimulate economic reform and development over a ten-year span.

a. The Alliance for Progress resulted, in part, from economic problems aggravated by falling prices after the Korean War, Nixon's hostile reception in 1958, and Castro's victory in 1959. Although proposed by President Kennedy, the ideas and purposes of the Alliance were largely of Latin American origin (such as Kubitschek's "Operation Pan America").

b. Economic progress, social justice, political liberty, and, more specifically, agrarian and tax reform, education, and industrialization were called for in the charter of the Alliance. Self-help was stipulated as a condition for aid, which was to come from private, public, and international sources.

c. The amount of progress made under the Alliance for Progress is debatable, but it is clear that it fell far short of achieving its lofty ten-year goals. Its failure to strengthen democracy is demonstrated by the thirteen military regimes that replaced constitutional governments in that ten-year period.

3. Private foreign investment provides needed

capital and know-how for industrial development but also arouses Latin American concerns about exploitation.

a. Foreign investors, necessary because of domestic capital shortages but discouraged by political instability and the threat of expropriation, demand high profit ratios to offset risks.

b. Most investment is in oil and mining rather than in industry, where it is more urgently needed.

4. Regional cooperation, the establishment of common markets, and attempts at economic integration promise to increase trade (providing investment capital) and create larger domestic markets for developing industries.

a. Both LAFTA (Latin American Free Trade Association) and CACM (Central American Common Market) were established in 1960 to expand trade by removing national barriers and to integrate their respective economies.

b. More recent moves toward economic integration, including the establishment of the six-member Andean Group and, in 1975, the Latin American Economic System (SELA), indicate progress in this area.

B. In addition to industrial development and related to general economic progress are the problems of inflation, taxation, government spending, and government's role in the economy.

Major Concepts

Industrialization
Inflation
Taxation
Socialism
Private enterprise
Capitalism

1. Inflation is almost universal, and especially in some nations. In Mexico it is expected to continue at a high level.

2. Public revenues derive largely from import-export duties and excise taxes, and as a result fluctuate widely, thus hindering long-range planning programs.

3. Government plays a variety of roles in the national economy.

a. Except for Cuba, Mexico, and Peru, private enterprise predominates in spite of varying degrees of government ownership.

b. Public planning is much more common than public ownership, and its purpose is to promote economic development, not to support a particular ideology.

VI. *Contemporary Politics, Government, and International Relations*

A. Given the lack of preparation for representative government, acceptance of military rule and thinly disguised dictatorship, uneven economic development, internal disunity, and defensive nationalism, it is not surprising that the Latin American republics do not tend to be republics in practice and that they are often unstable.

Major Concepts

Republic
Isolation
Nationalism
Coup d'état
Ethnocentrism
Dictatorship
Regionalism
Conflict (political)
Communism
Oligarchy

1. Lack of preparation for orderly, democratic government during the colonial period led to the dominance of *caudillos* and political instability throughout the nineteenth and into the twentieth centuries. (For a review of Spanish colonial administration, see II.B, and especially the legacy of the colonial period and the wars for independence, II.D; also II.E, politics in the early national period.)

2. Violence has played a large role in Latin American politics because power often cannot be gained by peaceful, democratic means. Thus, most revolutions or coups are changes of the "palace staff" and do not involve basic political, economic, or social change. (Exceptions are the revolutions in Mexico in 1910, in Cuba in 1959, in Peru in 1968, and in Nicaragua in 1979.)

3. Political stability depends, to a great extent,

on satisfactory economic progress. Changes of government, peacefully or through "revolutions," often result when governments cannot satisfy the economic demands of various groups (such as business or urban labor) or cannot control inflation.

4. The role of the military is changing. Traditionally associated with the ruling elites, leadership comes increasingly from the middle and lower classes, representing national rather than elite interests, and thus favoring some reform.

  a. The military sees itself as representing constitutionalism and continuity in the role of the nation's watchdog but does not seem to recognize the apparent contradiction between this view and military rule.

  b. The army has played an important part in economic development in such areas as transportation and communication, literacy, public health, and basic technical training. A major political issue concerns the desirability of extended military involvement in traditionally nonmilitary activities. (In Brazil from 1964 to 1985, in Peru from 1968 to 1985, and in Chile since 1973 under Gen. Augusto Pinochet, the military has played a central role in economic planning and reform.)

  c. The real or perceived threat of a Communist takeover and growing dissatisfaction with the rate of economic development increases the possibility of military intervention in several nations (as in Brazil in 1964). (Considerable fear of communism has been expressed to justify coups, although charges tend to be more convenient than real.)

5. In addition to specific political and economic problems is the problem of developing national unity and national leadership.

  a. Geographic obstacles to transportation and communication sustain regionalism.

  b. In Middle America and the Andean region, unassimilated Indian populations continue to exist in virtual isolation.

  c. Although the middle class is growing, considerable distance separates the rich elite and the poverty-stricken masses, who, as a result, have few common interests.

6. In spite of internal disunity, nationalistic rhetoric is a strong force in Latin America.

  a. Having achieved political independence, Latin American nations are aiming at economic and cultural independence and recognition in international politics. (Brazil, Venezuela, and Mexico are especially active internationally.)

  b. Existing in the shadow of U.S. material accomplishments and military might, Latin American nations are especially sensitive to hints of exploitation, threats to their national pride, and the feeling that they are merely pawns in superpower rivalries.

  c. Extremist propagandists and agitators have taken advantage of this sensitive nationalism to promote their ends, as seen in leftist attacks on the United States and "Yankee imperialism" and rightist attempts to exploit fears of a "Communist takeover."

7. The church traditionally has played a role in politics, either through the oligarchy or parties like the Conservatives and Christian Democrats.

B. Most Latin American governments are not Western-style democracies, but personalist rule (e.g., the late Juan Perón of Argentina) is giving way to institutional party (e.g., Mexico) or military (e.g., Chile) rule. Cuba is an example of personalist rule ("Fidelismo") heading toward institutional Communist party rule. Political instability still remains the rule rather than the exception.

  1. Most constitutions provide broad presidential powers, and some prohibit reelection in an attempt to break the tradition of *caudillismo* while providing strong leadership.

    a. Where federal governments exist (Argentina, Mexico, Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, and Colombia), the president may exert considerable influence in the states, such as choosing their governors.

    b. Legislatures tend to rubber stamp presidential decisions, and the judicial branches have similarly limited powers.

  2. Significant political parties are no longer merely the personal followings of popular leaders, but their fortunes and importance have varied considerably.

    a. Parties in general in Latin America do not attempt to be "all things to all people," as is the case with the Republicans and Democrats in the United States (an exception is the Partido Revolucionario Institucional [PRI] of Mexico). Latin American parties tend to be small, doctrinaire, and given to splintering.

b. Radical and social democratic parties exist in Argentina, Chile, and Peru. Small Communist parties exist in most Latin American nations, but, except in Cuba, have had little electoral success.

c. Military takeovers in Peru, Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay have dampened the optimism concerning democratic rule and reform associated with the appearance of middle-class and mass political parties like the Christian Democrats.

d. Still relatively isolated, the rural peasants have often been ignored by parties in favor of the urban worker and miner, whose ability to strike effectively presents a potential power base to parties and politicians.

e. As the parties of the Left have become accepted (in Nicaragua), the Right (including large landowners, industrialists, conservative military, and clergy) has lost power, although it remains influential in some countries, especially in rural areas.

3. Political activity is closely associated with students in institutions of higher education.

a. University students are one of the most politically active and politically conscious groups in society.

b. University campuses serve as important recruiting grounds for parties, many of which employ professional students whose primary task is to recruit members. University elections are often microcosms of the larger political system and indicators of national trends.

c. Universities often claim complete freedom from "interference" by police or government officials in the name of university "autonomy."

C. Latin America's political future depends on the ability of leaders to carry out the basic reforms necessary to socioeconomic progress and stability.

1. U.S.-style democracy is not necessarily the best form of government for Latin America.

a. To some extent, democracy has been discredited as a result of the weak, corrupt oligarchies with which it was associated.

b. Democracy is often slow and inefficient, while Latin Americans are demanding more, now.

2. It is most likely that Latin American nations will develop their own styles, adapted to their own conditions, and it may be that these governments will have strong executives and play a major role in economic development.

D. U.S.–Latin American relations have been characterized by alternating periods of U.S. interest and neglect, of conflict and cooperation, within a general atmosphere of gradually increasing U.S. concern.

1. Historically, Latin America has been within the U.S. sphere of influence. When the United States was preoccupied with internal problems or development, Latin America was ignored; when the United States was involved in international politics, Latin America received some attention; and in several instances the United States intervened directly in Latin American affairs.

a. From the beginning of the independence movement in Latin America, a sympathetic interest was shown by the people and government of the United States (illustrated by early recognition of the new nations).

b. The Monroe Doctrine has been variously interpreted and implemented both to the benefit and exploitation of Latin American nations. While keeping European nations from intervening in Latin American affairs, the United States appointed itself policeman of the Western Hemisphere and exercised considerable political, economic, and military influence. Some people even went so far as to include Latin America in their visions of the United States' "Manifest Destiny."

c. A significant change in the U.S. attitude did not come until the 1930s, when "Good Neighbor" intentions were demonstrated by abrogating the Platt Amendment (which reserved the right of the United States to intervene in Cuba and to establish military bases on the island) and negotiating a dispute with Mexico over expropriation of American-owned oil properties. Still, the United States did not treat its neighbors as equals or take a serious interest in the area's economic development.

d. Today, Latin America is important to the United States politically, as it comprises a significant portion of the United Nations General Assembly and 95 percent of the Organization of American States; economically, in terms of markets, resources, and investment; and strategically. Since the late 1950s, the United States has become more involved in Latin America, as illustrated by the Alliance for Progress and the Peace Corps. However, this interest seems (especially to Latin Americans) motivated largely by concern with the spread of communism and international politics.

2. Anti-Americanism may be an inevitable aspect of U.S.–Latin American relations.

a. There is a historical basis for charges of Yankee imperialism. The Mexican War and the period of the Spanish-American War saw the United States acquire considerable territory.

b. The United States did not enthusiastically support any real cooperative spirit even when the Pan American movement began, and in spite of cooperation since the 1930s, the United States continues to act unilaterally and to intervene in Latin American internal affairs (as in Guatemala, 1954; Cuba, 1961; the Dominican Republic, 1965; Grenada, 1983; and Nicaragua, as shown by U.S. support of antigovernment forces—the Contras—there).

c. U.S. private investments at times involve government protection of the rights of American investors, and some Latin Americans see U.S. actions as political meddling.

d. As a result of Cold War politics, the United States is often seen as, and has acted as, an obstacle to economic, social, and political change. Our concern with communism has made us especially sensitive to or suspicious of any Left-leaning movements regardless of the desirability of the changes involved, and our emphasis on short-range security considerations has at times led to the support of dictators.

e. U.S. influence (political, economic, cultural) is unavoidable, and the clash of Latin American nationalism and a U.S. "superiority complex" is intensified by a lack of meaningful communication and mutual understanding.

Note

[1] *Encomienda*: a tract of land that, with the Indians living on it, was granted by the crown to favored individuals. *Repartimiento*: a system of forced Indian labor, sometimes called *mita*. *Hacienda*: a politico-socioeconomic system resembling a feudal manor under the absolute rule of the *hacendado*; debt peonage kept the Indian from leaving.

For descriptions of instructional strategies for developing concepts and generalizations, see

Fraenkel, J. R. *Helping Students Think and Value*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Martorella, P. H. *Concept Learning*. Scranton, Pa.: Intext Educational Publishers, 1972.

Taba, Hilda. *Teachers' Handbook for Elementary Social Studies*. Palo Alto, Cal.: Addison-Wesley, 1967.

Tanck, M. L. "Teaching Concepts, Generalizations, and Constructs." In D. M. Fraser, ed., *Social Studies Curriculum Development*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1969.

TEACHING RESOURCES FOR DEVELOPING KEY IDEAS

Gloria Contreras

A search for supplementary instructional materials to help teachers teach the key ideas and concepts outlined by Professors Cornbleth and Gill revealed notable and recently developed resources. As noted elsewhere by Professor Greenfield, textbooks alone insufficiently represent the Latin American experience. Therefore, the following instructional aids constitute a sampling of primarily interdisciplinary works useful in teaching one or more of the key ideas previously given. Those high school teachers who teach a sole social science discipline can single out "pure" government, history, or economics information, for example. However, many social studies educators are likely to be concerned with providing a more integrated, multidisciplinary approach to Latin American culture and society.

The entries represented here are divided into four major categories:

- •Supplementary Texts, Teaching Guides, and Other Student Materials
- •Audiovisual Resources
- •ERIC Documents
- •Publishers

All of the works and material described here have been written or updated since 1980. They are designed for middle and high school-level students unless otherwise noted.

Supplementary Texts, Teaching Guides, and Other Student Materials

The following resources are designed for classroom use. Teachers of Spanish or social studies classes will find that many of the books listed here can provide important updated information for their own awareness. Most of the sources, however, are student-centered materials or books that come with teaching suggestions, activities, or discussion questions.

The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Latin America and the Caribbean. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1985.

This is a comprehensive reference detailing the history, culture, politics, economics, and geography of Latin America and the Caribbean. It is composed of short, thematically arranged articles with full-color illustrations. In addition to coverage of such topics as ancient civilizations, events of international significance, ethnic groups, the arts, and important writers, separate articles examine each country in the region.

Central America: Current Crisis and Future Prospects, by Marc Lindenberg and Jorge I. Domínguez . New York: Foreign Policy Associates, 1984.

This work familiarizes readers with the issues and interests at stake in Central America. It emphasizes U.S. foreign policy and gives a detailed treatment of Nicaragua and El Salvador.

Coming to America: From Mexico, Cuba, and Puerto Rico. New York: Dell, 1984.

This American Immigration Series uses diaries, letters, photographs, and interviews to portray the diversity of the experience of immigrants to America. It describes the crossing, arrival, and experiences in the new land but depicts also the immigrants lives in the "old country" and reasons for leaving it. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

Cuentos puertorriqueños, by Robert L. Muckley and Eduardo E. Vargas. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company, 1985.

The Development Data Book (BK-0312) and *Teaching Guide (BK-0313).* Washington, DC: The World Bank, 1987.

The *Data Book* is a colorful presentation of maps, charts, tables, and text related to five key statistical concepts in studying the development process: life expectancy, adult literacy rate, population growth rate, GNP per capita, and merchandise exports. Available from World Bank Publications, Department 0552, Washington, DC 20073-0552.

Distant Neighbors: A Portrait of the Mexicans, by Alan Riding. New York: Random House, 1984.

This book is by a correspondent for the *New York Times* who examines the development of Mexico from preconquest times to the present, emphasizing its interdependent relationship with the United States. He analyzes topics that include the Mexican political system, institutionalized corruption, population growth, foreign debt, the oil boom and bust, and the cultural bias against Indians by Mexico's mestizo elite.

Global Studies: Latin America, by Paul B. Guilford. Goodwin, CT: Dushkin Publishing Group, 1986.

Global Studies: Latin America covers Mexico, Central America, South America, and the Caribbean. For each of these regions there is a narrative essay focusing on the geographical, cultural, sociopolitical, and economic differences and similarities of the countries and people in the region. Maps and concise reports on each of the countries within the region follow each of the regional essays. This volume is intended to provide the most current and useful information available necessary to understand the events that are shaping the cultures of Latin America. This volume is updated on a regular basis.

Good Neighbors: The U.S. and Latin America, by Ann E. Weiss. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1985.

This material examines the complexity of U.S. relations with Latin America and many current social and political issues confronting Americans. It presents both U.S. and Latin American perspectives on various issues.

Latin America. Educational Masterprints, 1982.

This is a set of reproducible materials on such aspects of Latin America as geography, history, culture and society, the economy, government, and the relationship to the U.S. Maps and worksheets are included.

Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

Latin American History: A Teaching Atlas. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1983.

This material is designed for courses on Latin America dealing with either historical or current affairs. These reproducible maps feature charts, shaded areas, and graphs that convey a maximum amount of information in an easy-to-interpret fashion. This visual resource includes coverage of the high civilizations of the Aztecs, Mayas, and Incas, and Iberian colonialism. The modern period is represented by individual maps of each Latin American and Caribbean country and more than 20 maps illustrating current social and economic conditions.

Latin America: The Third World, by Philip Evanson. Guilford, CT: Dushkin Publishing Group, 1984.

The Third World volumes have been written to provide much-needed materials on non-Western cultures. This volume discusses Latin America from the perspective of societies and cultures in transition. The contents include a description of the land and people; the colonial period; the era of independence; modern times; and the crisis of the 1980s. Added are maps, questions, a glossary, and other resources.

Latin America Today: An Atlas of Reproducible Pages. World Eagle, 1986.

This packet of reproducible materials includes more than 150 reproducible maps, tables, and graphs on such subjects as geography, countries, climate, people, cities, government, products, trade, agriculture, resources, education, debt, employment, and energy. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

Leyendas de Puerto Rico, by Robert L. Muckley and Adela Martínez-Santiago. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company, 1982.

Living in Latin America: A Case Study in Cross-Cultural Communication, by Raymond L. Gorden. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co., 1984.

This work is an examination of culturally formed assumptions about behavior that led to misunderstanding between North and Latin Americans, particularly Colombians.

Mexico and the U.S. Today, by Margaret Flesher Ribaroff. New York: Watts, 1985.

This work stresses the importance of an equitable relationship between the two countries by examining the common interests uniting and the differences separating the U.S. and Mexico. Major issues covered include trade, undocumented workers, and the conflict in Central America.

The Nicaraguan Revolution: Ideas in Conflict, edited by Gary E. McCuen. GEM Publications, 1986.

Background information and articles reflect many perspectives regarding the Sandinista Revolution and U.S. policy toward Nicaragua. Point/counterpoint readings are provided by representatives of human rights organizations, U.S. and Nicaraguan government officials, social scientists, journalists, and other commentators.

Revolution in Central America, by Glenn Alan Cheney. New York: Watts, 1984.

Revolution and civil unrest as they relate to Nicaragua, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras are examined. Nicaragua and El Salvador are covered in-depth along with discussions on poverty, disease, and political repression throughout the region. The Reagan administration's policies are evaluated critically.

Rise Up in Anger: Latin America Today, by Robert A. Karlowich. New York: Messner, 1985.

Introduces the complex problems currently facing Latin America from historical, political, social, and economic perspectives. It explores such factors as strong-arm *caudillos*, liberation theology, and U.S. and Soviet influence on regional development, addressing specific issues in such troubled countries as El Salvador, Nicaragua, Argentina, and Chile. It ends with speculation of the area's potential as a vital world region.

The Spanish-American War.

This simulation game is available for $17.50 from Opportunities for Learning, Inc., 20417 Nordhoff St., Dept. DA 78, Chatsworth, CA 91311; (818) 341-2535.

Voces de Puerto Rico, by Kenneth Overholt. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company, 1981.

Women in Latin America: From Pre-Columbian Times to the 20th Century, by Marjorie Wall Bingham and Susan Hill Gross. St. Louis: Grenhurst Publications, 1985.

This book is meant to enhance the regular social studies curriculum units on Latin America. The basic idea of the book is that women have led very different lives, depending on factors such as time, place, class, life stage, and individual talents. It features eminent women and the unusual roles for women from pre-Columbian times to the present. (Grenhurst Publications, Inc., publishers of Women's History Curriculum, Central Community Center, 6300 Walker St., St. Louis, MO 55416; [612] 925-3632.)

Audiovisual Resources

The following entries are filmstrip programs with accompanying teaching guides unless otherwise noted.

The Caribbean Basin: Latin American Studies. New York: Random House, 1985.

This four-part series paints a panorama of the geography, outlines the history, unravels the politics, and explains the economics of this strategically important region. The final filmstrip summarizes U.S. relations with the Central American nations. Available from Social Studies School Services (see Publishers).

Crescent of Crisis: A Study on Mexico, Central America, and Cuba. Niles, IL: United Learning, 1982.

This filmstrip set is a survey of current events in Central America. Major events are placed in historical perspective, and the program shows the relationship of geography and resources to each country's development. Available from Social Studies School Services (see Publishers).

The Cuban Missile Crisis. Chatsworth, CA: Opportunities for Learning, 1987.

This program comes in a filmstrip or videocassette format, reconstructs the confrontation that brought the superpowers to the brink of nuclear war, and shows how the crisis led to the SALT disarmament talks. The dilemma of U.S. relations with Latin America is included (see Publishers).

Cuban Premier Fidel Castro. Chatsworth, CA: Opportunities for Learning, 1987.

The program looks into Castro's childhood and his climb to becoming the founder of the first Communist government in the Western Hemisphere (see Publishers).

Latin America. Chatsworth, CA: Opportunities for Learning, 1987.

Latin America provides a panorama of this region's history, geography, economic systems, and changing governmental structures (see Publishers).

Latin America: Education or Revolution? New York Times, 1982.

The program examines the internal conflicts in Nicaragua, Guatemala, and El Salvador and how the U.S. and Soviet-Cuban interests view the present situation. Available from Social Studies School Services (see Publishers).

Latin American Studies: Central America. Educational Enrichment, 1982.

Six filmstrips trace the geography, culture, history, and economic status of El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, Belize, Costa Rica, and Panama. A discussion of the history of the Panama Canal provides background on continued U.S. involvement in Central America. Available from Social Studies School Services (see Publishers).

Latin American Studies Series. Mexico. Educational Enrichment, 1982.

This program gives an overview of Mexico's past, present, and future. The set covers Mexico's government and politics and its relationship to the world in general and to the U.S. in particular—stressing America's need of Mexican oil, the problem of illegal immigration, and trade relations. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

Latin American Studies: South America. Educational Enrichment, 1982.

This filmstrip encapsulates thirteen countries in terms of population and topography, history, rural/urban and agricultural/industrial balances, and the nature of their culture and modern society. Inequities in the distribution of wealth, economic trends, industrial development, and the emergency of the countries' political systems are particularized. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

South America: A Unit of Study. Niles, IL: United Learning, 1983.

These six filmstrips explain the continent's diverse geography and present an overview of the area's history from colonial times to the aftermath of the Falkland Islands crisis. It discusses South America's ethnic diversity and class structure, population growth and urbanization, mineral resource depletion, and shared interests with the U.S. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

Seeds of Progress. Washington, DC: The World Bank, 1987. IB-0919

Seeds of Progress is a videocassette that features the poorest of Mexico's rural families and agencies of the Mexican government working to increase farm output, extend electricity, and build roads, schools, and health centers. The videocassette comes with a teaching guide. Available from The World Bank (see Publishers).

Tackling Poverty in Rural Mexico. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank, 1987.

This kit examines the Mexican economy by focusing on the living conditions of small farmers and their families. The kit includes a filmstrip with an audio cassette, script, and a teaching guide (see Publishers).

Women in Latin America. Glenhurst, 1984.

The filmstrip chronicles the history of women during the changes brought by the conquistadors, the various revolutions, and the modern age. The progress refutes the stereotype of the passive Latin American women. Available from Social Studies School Service (see Publishers).

ERIC DOCUMENTS

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a nationwide information network for acquiring, selecting, abstracting, indexing, storing, retrieving, and disseminating significant and timely education-related reports. The following entries represent some of the most recent teaching resources available for teaching about Latin America.

ED 259 035
Teaching Culturally Relevant Science, by Diana Martínez, May 1983.

A part of this paper, presented at the Michigan Annual Hispanic Conference, discusses Mayan mathematics, the Mayan calendar, the Horizon Coordinate System (used by ancient astronomers), and Mesoamerican buildings and structures used for astronomical purposes. Ideas are provided for culturally relevant student projects in astronomy, geology, botany, agriculture, nutrition, architecture and city planning, and art.

ED 259 714
We Are One: Los Peregrinos Modernos. Unit IV. Teacher's Guide by Linda Peterson and Tom Walsh, 1984.

This teaching guide is intended for upper elementary school children and provides a look at contemporary political refugees in Nebraska. It traces the life of the fictitious Martínez family from their home in Latin America, through their difficult journey to the U. S., to their settlement in Omaha, Nebraska. This look at "modern pioneers" can be used with a series of eight 15-minute telecasts, but the teacher's manual provides lessons that can be used independently. (Available from ITV, P. O. Box 80669, Lincoln, NE 68501 for $3.00.)

ED 270 367

Central America: Current Crisis and Future Prospects. Foreign Policy Association Headline Series, No. 271, by Jorge I. Domínguez and Marc Lindenberg.

One of a series of booklets on world issues, this document summarizes some of the salient aspects of Central America with special attention given to Nicaragua and El Salvador. The booklet identifies the interest, policies, and choices of the major actors in the drama that engulfs the region and, increasingly, much of the world. The "Talking It Over" section offers questions for students and discussion groups. (Available from the Foreign Policy Association, 205 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10016 for $3.00.)

ED 270 368

Mexico: Neighbor in Transition. Foreign Policy Association Headline Series, No. 267, by Peter Smith, Feb. 1984.

This 5-part series discusses (1) Mexican history from Cortés to Madero, (2) the Mexican economy for the last 100 years, (3) the Mexican political system, (4) Mexico's petroleum and natural resources, and (5) U. S. and Mexican relations. (Available from the Foreign Policy Association, 205 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10016 for $3.00.)

ED 268 040

Latin America: Curriculum Materials for the Middle Grades, by Virginia G. Gibbs, 1985.

Self-contained activities that will help social studies or Spanish foreign language students in grades 6-8 learn about the history and culture of Latin America are provided. The following countries or regions are emphasized: Argentina, Brazil, the Caribbean, Central America, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. (Available from the Center for Latin America, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P. O. Box 413, Milwaukee 53201 for $19.50 plus $2.50 postage and handling.)

ED 268 206

Afro-Brazilian Literature: A New Dimension for Black and Latin American Studies. Curriculum by James H. Kennedy, 1985.

This work profiles representative Afro-Brazilian writers and provides a guide to English-language translations and critical studies of their work. Recent studies estimate that more than 40 percent of Brazil's inhabitants are of African descent, and blacks are a substantial literary force in Brazil. Following an introduction that cites various works on blacks in Brazilian civilization, biographical sketches of six authors are presented, each of which includes listings of English translations and biographical/critical sources.

ED 268 458

Street Children: A Selected Bibliography, by Kirk J. Felsman, December 1985.

This document contains a bibliography of books, articles, and films that deal with the phenomenon of street children. This bibliography is intended for those working on behalf of street children and also as a resource for academic researchers; however, the subject is important from a social studies/global issues perspective. References are in both English and Spanish.

ED 264 161

Latin American Studies, ERIC Digest No.19, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies, Boulder, CO, by Kay K. Cook, 1985.

Following an introductory section describing the incomplete or biased portrait of Latin America in textbooks and the media, four subjects are examined—foreign policy, physical proximity, the American heritage, and negative stereotyping.

ED 266 063

Five Studies on the Situation of Women in Latin America, August 1984.

This report covers the following topics: (1) the integration of women in development, (2) the family as the immediate social framework of children and women, (3) some types of poor women in Latin America, (4) the educational situation of women, and (5) women in development and housework. This is not a teaching guide, but the work is considered important for the development of a more gender-balanced curriculum. (Available from United Nations Publications, Sales Section, DC-2-866, New York, NY 10017.)

ED 255 406

Social Studies. Grade Ten. Intermediate Guide, developed by the Manitoba Department of Education, Winnipeg, Curriculum Development Branch, 1984.

The primary focus of this Canadian social studies curriculum guide is on Canada and the U. S.; the secondary focus is on Central America.

ED 249 155

Pottery from Peru: A Handbook, 2d ed. by Alix Rammage, 1981.

One of three handbooks dealing with pottery traditions from around the world, this packet draws together information about historical, ethnographic, and pottery traditions of Peru. Included is the study of Peru's land and people and student worksheets that demonstrate techniques and ideas for working with clay.

PUBLISHERS

The educational publishers listed here offer free catalogues that include important teaching resources related to Latin America. It is recommended that you get on these publishers' mailing lists to receive their new catalogues on a regular basis. Many of the materials listed in the three previous sections are available through these publishers at low prices.

Bilingual Educational Services, Inc.
2514 South Grande Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90007
(213) 749-6213

A variety of reading and audiovisual materials are designed for elementary, middle school, and high school students. Some popular series relate information about Mexican history, mythology, and the Mayan and Aztec calendars.

Fiesta Publishing
6360 N. E. 4th Court
Miami, FL 33138
(305) 751-1181

The Spanish Language Books Catalog lists over 1,400 different economically priced books translated into or written in Spanish. Most entries are English/Spanish translated; however, several valuable entries treat Mexican literature and works by other Latin American authors.

The American Forum
45 John Street, Suite 1200
New York, NY 10038
(212) 732-8606

Request materials related to the Third World and development in Latin America. Their teaching units include *Latin American Crafts: A Resource Guide-Interdisciplinary Studies* Grade 6;*Teaching about Diversity: Latin America with Student Handouts in Spanish*; and Course Design for "Comparative Latin American Cultures."

Intercultural Press, Inc.
P. O. Box 768
Yarmouth, ME 04096
(207) 846-5168

This is the best source of mail order books on cross-cultural training subjects. Updates is a series of valuable guides for those planning to live and work abroad. Each Update provides both practical and cultural information. Updates on Mexico and Venezuela are available.

MEX/ICS
Mexico Information and Consulting Service, Inc.
2811 East Overlook Rd.
Cleveland Hts., OH 44106
(216) 321-6004

Books in the regular Minutiae Mexicana series are specialized guides to various aspects of Mexican life, culture, and natural history. Each paperback book is an original by an authority in the field, well illustrated with photos, drawings, and maps. A sampling of their titles includes *A Guide to Mexican Poetry, Ancient and Modern; A Guide to Mexican Ceramics; A Guide to Architecture in Ancient Mexico; The Aztecs Then and Now,; A Guide to Mexican History; and The Great Temple and the Aztec Gods.*

National Textbook Company
4255 West Touhy Avenue
Lincolnwood, IL 60646-1975

Request the English as a Second Language & Bilingual Education Catalog for ample culturally relevant material related to the Hispanic world. Included are biographies of Mexican heroes, Puerto Rican and Mexican music, Mexican folk dances, and other instructional aids for elementary, middle, and high school levels.

Opportunities for Learning, Inc.
2041F Nordhoff Street
Dept. DA 78
Chatsworth, CA 91311
(818) 341-2535

This is a good source for maps, including physical-political maps and map outline fill-ins and other audiovisual materials listed above.

Social Studies School Service
10200 Jefferson Blvd., P. O. Box 802
Culver City, CA 90232-0802
(800) 421-4246

This company's comprehensive catalog is excellent and includes materials related to Immigration, Latin studies, the Third World, Latin America, and Mexico and Central America.

UnitedLearning
P.O. Box 718
6633 West Howard Street
Niles, IL 60648-9990

Request their special edition for high school social studies teachers. Materials are designed to help students develop an awareness of the world.

The World Bank, Publications
Department 0552
Washington, D. C., 20073-0552

The World Bank Catalog of Educational Materials describes up-to-date materials (books, videocassettes, and kits) that bring the developing world into the classroom curriculum. Materials are priced very reasonably.

LATIN AMERICA
Political Units
UNITED STATES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MEXICO
CUBA
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
JAMAICA
BELIZE
HAITI
PUERTO RICO
GUATEMALA
HONDURAS
EL SALVADOR
NICARAGUA
TRINIDAD
COSTA RICA
PANAMA
VENEZUELA
SURINAM
FR. GUIANA
COLOMBIA
GUYANA
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
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URUGUAY
ARGENTINA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
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Scale in Miles
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CHAPTER 2. CONCEPT PAPERS

This section of the handbook features a number of leading Latin Americanists. Professors Susan Deans-Smith, Lawrence S. Graham, Richard N. Adams, William P. Glade, and Michael E. Conroy elaborate on the social science concepts contained in KEY IDEAS. They provide updated background information for achieving a better understanding of today's complex Latin American society. More important, they write with the needs of the high school student in mind, providing you, the teacher, with concepts, themes, or issues for classroom instruction. These concept papers are all the more important because, as Professor Michael Greenfield notes in his paper about the school curriculum, problems of tone and deficiencies of content prove more characteristic of most texts used by high school students. The excerpt from a book by Robert Heilbroner is included here because of the excellent way in which it illustrates the meaning of "underdevelopment" in human terms.

INDIANS AND SPANIARDS IN COLONIAL SPANISH AMERICA: SOME CONSIDERATIONS

Susan Deans-Smith

Introduction

When teachers and students consider Latin America there is often a tendency to emphasize contemporary events and problems—the role of the United States in Latin America, international debt, authoritarian governments, and so forth. A valid exercise indeed and one to be continually encouraged but not, I would argue, at the expense of a sense of the historical trends and processes that have combined to shape Latin American countries and their development in the late twentieth century. What I propose to do in this short essay is to concentrate on the colonial period of Latin American history (loosely defined to cover the period 1492-1821) and focus on Mexico and Peru. It is, I think, a period that is too often neglected, often reduced to biographies of Columbus, Cortés, and Hidalgo, followed by a dizzying leap to the early nineteenth century with the ousting of the Spanish and the unsteady formation of the modern states of Latin America. My comments address the *second key idea* contained within this teaching text, which outlines "historical background." I cannot cover all the topics listed under that section; instead, I have selected one theme that lends itself to a variety of approaches, questions, and considerations that can be introduced into lessons that deal with history, anthropology, cultural studies, sociology, and so forth. I propose to concentrate primarily on the meeting of Spanish and indigenous cultures, the assumptions made by the Spaniards about the "conquered" peoples (and vice-versa), the methods used to incorporate the Indians into the Spanish colonial system, and the conflicts and accommodations experienced by both groups over three hundred years of colonial control. The major purpose of the discussion is to encourage consideration of the impact of Spanish colonialism on the indigenous groups and the forms it took. The Spanish reaction to the indigenous peoples of the New World differed from that of the English (and, later, the Anglo-Americans) to the Indian tribes they encountered in North America. You may wish to consider, for example, why some governments choose to encourage the fusion of races and a relatively fluid society that permits "passing" from one racial group to another, or why others choose a rigid, fixed apartheid system, the bitter experience of South Africa. Why do nations assume the superiority of their own culture at the expense of one that is different? One consideration that should never be neglected is an assessment of how the "conquered" or "colonized" perceive their situation and how they respond to it over time.

Spain's Presence in the New World

Spain's expansion overseas was based on two major desires: to discover new trade routes for the purposes of Spanish trade and commerce, and to continue the Spanish crusade against Islam and thus convert newly conquered peoples to Christianity. As a result of Columbus' discovery of Hispaniola, the Spanish monarchy gained a foothold in a geographical area that eventually became one of the richest empires in the world. Such wealth, however, depended largely on the capacity of the Spaniards to extract and control the labor of the Indians and, by extension, the resources of the overseas territories—silver, gold, fertile lands that would eventually produce lucrative export crops such as tobacco and sugar. The problems in such management (or lack thereof) of the indigenous peoples became distressingly apparent during Spain's earliest attempts at settlement in the Caribbean area. Poor administration, maltreatment of the Indians by a singularly factious Spanish population, and the former's acute susceptibility to European diseases (influenza, smallpox, measles) combined virtually to annihilate the indigenous population just twenty years after the arrival of the Spaniards. The subsequent conquests of Mexico (1521) and Peru (1532) resulted in similar devastating consequences for the Indian populations in the decades that followed substantial immigration and settlement of these regions by Spaniards. On the eve of the arrival of the Spanish conquistadors, Mexico had an estimated population of 25 million; Peru, an estimated 9 million. Almost a century later, once more as a result of conquest violence and maltreatment, disease, and psychological trauma experienced by the Indians, the populations had declined to approximately 1 million in Mexico and 600,000 in Peru—a demographic catastrophe of unimaginable proportions. If one considers these figures for a moment and then considers that the foundation of Spanish colonialism depended on its indigenous base for labor and tribute, the problems that such precipitous declines presented become apparent. Both state and church found compelling reasons, moral and economic, to at least attempt to place buffers between Spanish colonists and the indigenous populations, often with little success.

Debates and Dissension over the Indians

The Caribbean phase of Spanish colonialism demonstrated the egregious consequences of the lack of a formal Indian policy, especially with regard to the unsupervised *encomienda* system (more about this later). The demise of the Indians provoked protests from Dominican friars who arrived in Hispaniola in 1510. The most vocal, Friar Antonio Montesinos, delivered a vituperative sermon during which he threatened the Spaniards with damnation for their cruel treatment of, and indifference to the suffering of, the Indians. Montesinos raised important if controversial questions in his sermon. Angrily, he questioned:

> Tell me, by what right or justice do you hold these Indians in such cruel and horrible slavery? By what right do you wage such detestable wars on these people who lived mildly and peacefully in their own lands, where you have consumed infinite numbers of them with unheard-of murders and desolations? Are they not men? Do they not have rational souls?[1]

Such questions raised several important issues, which ranged from doubts as to the legitimacy of Spain's actions in and claims to the New World, to a need to evaluate the nature of the American Indian and place him in the universal order of humanity—at least as it was conceptualized by Spaniards in the sixteenth century. As to the former issue of the legitimacy of Spain's actions of conquest and appropriation of the new lands and control of the local resources, a response emerged in the form of the *requerimiento* (requirement). A masterpiece of irrelevancy, the *requerimiento* per se asked that the Indians accept the rule of the Spanish monarch and the Catholic church. If they refused to do so, then they were threatened with a "just" war and the consequences of defeat—enslavement. In a situation of violence, fear, and confusion, the proclamation was rendered meaningless to the Indians. Spanish policy, in this case, was reduced to a ridiculous pro forma instrument.

The first half of the sixteenth century witnessed a series of debates and legislative activity designed to justify conquest and ameliorate its more violent consequences. The Laws of Burgos (1512) and the New Laws (1542) stand out, at least in their aims to prevent exploitation of the Indians and to curb the power of the *encomenderos*.

The ineffectiveness of such laws provoked further reaction from Spaniards sympathetic to the plight of the Indians. Following in the fiery tradition of Montesinos, another Dominican (former *encomendero*) Bartolomé de las Casas, emerged as a central figure in the early controversies over Indian policy. A prolific writer, bishop of Chiapas, and well traveled throughout the Caribbean, Mexico, and Peru, Las Casas drew on thirty years' worth of experience of living and preaching among the Indians. He assembled his formidable experience and even more formidable commitment and entered into an intellectual combat with the humanist Juan Ginés de Sepúlveda in the most important debate over the nature of the American Indian held in Valladolid in Spain in 1550. It is clear that the "popular" opinions of Indians relegated them to "animals," "savages," "barbarians," "natural slaves." Ginés de Sepúlveda argued that the Indians were a people inferior to the Spaniards and therefore subject to their control, not for the purposes of mass enslavement, but for the Indians' own good. The "tutelage" rule belonged to the *encomenderos.*

Las Casas objected to Ginés de Sepúlveda's views on several grounds; the Spanish crown objected because of the implications of Ginés de Sepúlveda's arguments—control of the Indians by Spanish colonists and not the Spanish state. Las Casas, unlike Ginés de Sepúlveda and many other Spaniards, did not view the Indians as beasts or barbarians. More to the point, as far as the crown was concerned, Las Casas argued strenuously for "pacification" and conversion of the Indians to be carried out by the church and the crown by peaceful means—the construction of a "missionary empire" without the corrupting influence of Spanish settlers. Las Casas concluded that

> all mankind is one, and all men are alike in what concerns their creation and all natural things and no-one is born enlightened. From this it follows that all of us must be guided and aided at first by those who were born before us . . . the savage peoples of the earth may be compared to uncultivated soil that readily brings forth weeds and useless thorns but has within itself such natural virtue that by labor and cultivation it may be made to yield sound and beneficial fruits.[2]

Pyrrhic victory though it was, Las Casas "won" the debate in the sense that Ginés de Sepúlveda's writings and their arguments were banned from publication and distribution. Ordinances drawn up in the 1570s set out new conditions and rules to be followed in new areas of conquest and settlement to prevent the types of atrocities experienced in the past. By this time, however, it was too late to undo what had already occurred. Although such debates proved useful in the identification of problems between two distinct cultural and racial groups, and the problem of power and its source in the colonies, they did not result in any major change in attitude toward the Indian. As we shall see later, however, as marginalized as the Indians came to be in Spanish society, they were not completely excluded.

Images of the Indian: Images of the Spaniards

Many of the early accounts of the discovery and conquest of the New World, apart from conveying factual information, were composed for specific purposes: to justify the actions of a conquistador, to justify the demands for protection of the Indians, to justify the policies adopted by the Spanish crown for control of the colonies and their inhabitants. The general result was a variety of images of the New World and its indigenous peoples, many with a bias toward the presentation of the Indians as inferior because of their style of life, levels of achievement, language, and religion. What is worth consideration here is the development and perpetuation of stereotypes, often in the face of conflicting evidence. Conquistadors and priests alike expressed admiration for the achievements of the Inca and Aztec "empires"—their stunningly beautiful art and weavings, ordered cities with magnificent buildings often favorably compared to European cities. Yet such admiration dissolved when it came to views of the "Indians" under Spanish rule. The widespread use of the (incorrect) term "Indian" imposed a uniformity on the indigenous peoples that belied their diversity and achievements, their history and identities. Very rarely did the various ethnic groups under Spanish rule refer to themselves as "Indians."

Here are a couple of examples of conflicting views of Incan rule prior to the arrival of the Spaniards and written by Spaniards. The Jesuit Bernabé Cobo commented that

> the yoke that weighed down the necks of these miserable Indians was so heavy that I doubt if all the men in the world, joining together to invent a species of subjection and tyranny as oppressive as that in which they lived could improve on what the Incas achieved to keep these Indians in a state of submission.[3]

Soldier and writer Pedro Cieza de León saw Inca rule in a different light:

> The Incas always did good works for their subjects not permitting them to be wronged or burdened with excessive tribute or outraged in any way . . . it was understood that these lords knew not only how to be served by their subject and to obtain tribute from them but also to keep up their lands and how to raise them from their first rude condition to a civilized state and from destitution to comfort.[4]

Two conflicting images of the Incas—tyrannical and beneficent. Each view placed the Spanish conquest in a different light: "freeing" the indigenous peoples from oppressive rule or destroying a civilization that sought to take care of its inhabitants. Which version do we believe and why?

One of the problems of reconstructing the history of the Indians is that much of the information, as we have seen, often had purposes over and above simply collecting descriptions of indigenous societies. A further problem is that many of the descriptions inevitably arose out of cultural filters—the imposition of European categories and concepts onto fundamentally non-European beliefs, traditions, and social, political, and economic organizations. Accounts of conquest and colonialism from the perspective of the Indians were rare but they do exist. Perhaps the most exceptional account came from the pen of an acculturated Peruvian Indian, Guaman Poma de Ayala. Through the use of the Spanish art of writing, Guaman Poma described in great detail the customs and urbanization of the Andean societies prior to the arrival of the Spaniards and the consequences of their settlement in Peru. The corruptness of the royal officials, the priests, and *encomenderos*, and the subsequent exploitation and victimization of the Andean peoples were discussed and illustrated. Although Guaman Poma argued for the restitution of property and political power to the Indians, he also recognized that the Spaniards would not leave and that no meaningful dialogue between the Indian and Spanish worlds was possible. The Andean world had been "turned upside down," never to be righted again, the traditional order doomed to disintegration. It is a compelling account that reveals the fear and mistrust with which Indians viewed the Spaniards.

The Church and the Indians

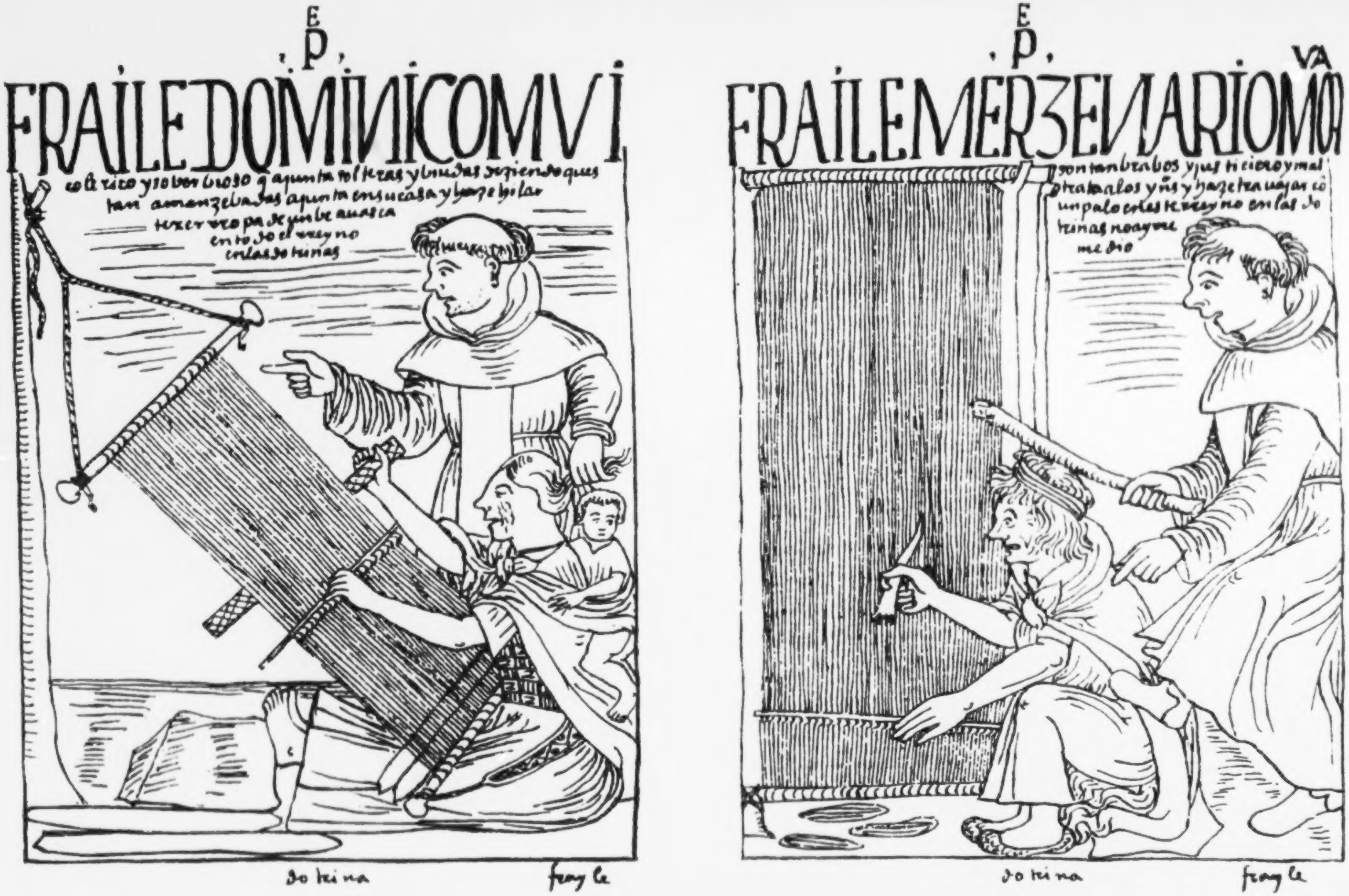
Apart from producing proindigenist spokesmen such as Montesinos and Las Casas, the church acted as a primary agent in the process of "incorporating" the Indians into Spanish society through their conversion to Christianity. With the aid of the religious orders—the Dominicans, Franciscans, Augustinians, and Jesuits—the Spanish crown embarked on campaigns of evangelization and the extirpation of native religious beliefs—'idolatry." The early years of evangelization witnessed tremendous enthusiasm and commitment, particularly in Mexico. Depending on the individual order's requirements, many missionaries learned one or several native languages before entering the missionary field—Nahuatl, Quechua, Otomí. One method of conversion was to discern central beliefs and concepts held by the Indians and then emphasize similarities. Both the Aztec and Inca religions incorporated the ideas of sacrifice, confession, intercession, and so forth. Such similar valued concepts would then be used as a base on which to build, culminating in the full acceptance of Christianity. Indeed, it is due primarily to the efforts of many of these missionaries that we possess, today written records of the customs, laws, beliefs, and structures of the Indian societies prior to the arrival of the Spaniards.

Up until the 1570s the establishment of the two societies—the *república de indios* and the *república de españoles* —continued to be the ideal method of ensuring an effective acceptance of Christianity by many of the missionaries. The example set by many Spanish settlers offended many of the friars who attempted to teach the tenets of Christ to Indians who had only witnessed avarice, violence, and licentious behavior from their new rulers. The last decades of the sixteenth century saw a sad decline in missionary fervor and dedication. Frustrated by the resistance of many Indians to giving up their religion and accepting Christian doctrine, lack of sufficient numbers of missionaries in the field, hostile opposition from Spanish colonists, many friars succumbed to token spiritual care of their charges. The arrival of the secular clergy—parish priests subject to the authority of bishops—only served to divert the attention of many of the members of the regular orders as they fought to maintain control of their "territories" and the Indians within them. By the seventeenth century, the pattern of church-Indian relations was established with the development of Indian parishes and a local parish priest. The record of the role of such priests is mixed—Indians frequently complained of ill-treatment by their local priest. At the same time, there were priests who were compassionate and sincere in their care for their indigenous parishioners and attempted to protect them from abusive treatment by Spaniards, often acting as "cultural brokers" between the native and Hispanic worlds.

The "spiritual conquest" of the New World was less than successful from the perspective of the clergy. Although the church tried to discourage "heathen" practices and rituals and mounted periodic campaigns against heretical movements, the outcome for the Indians tended to be a somewhat transformed set of beliefs—not simply a mix of Christian and native, but a new reformulation that helped many to come to terms with a "world turned upside down." It is also worth considering that a native church did not—indeed, was neither permitted nor encouraged to—develop in Spanish America. Indians could serve in various auxiliary capacities to the local priest but very few were ordained.

The Spanish State and the Indian

The fact of conquest placed the Indians under Spanish jurisdiction as vassals of the Spanish crown. They were subject to a variety of taxes, controls, prohibitions, and laws ostensibly designed to set them apart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Guaman Poma de Ayala's Representations of Spanish Cleric's Maltreatment of the Indians

Felipe Guamán Poma de Ayala, *Nueva Coronica y Buen Gobierno* [1615]. Eds. J. V. Murra and Rolena Adorno, Siglo Veintiuno, Mexico City, 3 vols., 1980.

from the rest of Spanish society. Yet there was an immutable bond between the development of the colonies and the survival of the Indians, between the construction of a new Spanish world and the preservation of the traditional Indian world. Guaman Poma described the connection with abrupt clarity to the Spanish king:

> From here until 20 years from now, there will be no Indian in this kingdom by which your royal crown and the defense of our Holy Catholic faith might be served . . . without the Indians your Majesty is not worth anything. Because one must remember that Castile is Castile because of the Indians.[5]

The danger of loss of the Indian population and excessive control of the existing populations by *encomenderos* resulted in legislation to "protect" the Indians. Yet the dependence of Spain on its colonists and settlers and their need for sustained incentives to remain in those colonies frequently worked against effective implementation of such laws. A certain inertia played its role in the development of the colonies and Spanish-Indian relations as much as formal state policy did, if not more.

The Valladolid debate that we discussed previously acted as a postscript to the vexed problem of *encomienda*. The system of *encomienda* transferred from the Iberian Peninsula and transformed to suit the needs of both the Spaniards and the crown became a founding institution of Spanish colonialism and "bridge" between the two worlds. Originally used to reward conquistadors, *encomienda* consisted of a grant of Indians to a Spaniard. The latter could claim tribute in the form of goods and labor services. In return for their tribute obligations, the assigned Indians received (theoretically) protection and religious instruction. Generally, the "bridge" was only traveled one way—in the direction of the Spaniards. The produce of Indian communities was gradually transferred into the hands of the Spaniards; as Indians succumbed to the ravages of conquest and disease, land left vacant also found its way into the hands of the Spaniards. The irrevocable marginalization of the Indians was under way. Communities that managed to survive intact often did so because of their location in areas that offered little attraction for Spaniards—lack of fertile lands, mineral deposits, isolation, although this was to change in the eighteenth century.

The legislative measures adopted by the crown testified to the abuse of the *encomienda* system by its recipients—a necessary but potentially dangerous colonial elite. Controversial in content and, in some cases, in their consequences, the New Laws of 1542 expanded on the timorous Laws of Burgos, which only sought to caution the *encomenderos* and sanction more humane treatment of the Indians. At the core of the New Laws was an attack on the hereditary base of *encomienda*. Instead of allowing an *encomendero* to will his *encomienda* to his heirs, under the New Laws it would revert to the crown and be taken care of by a royal official, the *corregidor de indios*, who, it was argued, would be more humane and just in his management of the Indians in his charge. The typical situation was more of collusion between the *corregidor* and *encomendero* colonist at the continued expense of the Indian. So controversial were the contents of this legislation that the viceroy of New Spain (Mexico) refrained from announcing the New Laws, well aware of the uproar they would provoke among the *encomenderos*; less sensitive to local conditions, the viceroy of Peru proclaimed them only to find himself in the midst of Spanish revolts against the implementation of the New Laws. The final resolution was characteristic of Spanish colonial legislation: delay and compromise. In this instance, however (and partly because of the activities of individuals like Las Casas), the crown succeeded in removing the Indians from the *encomenderos*' direct control.

Part of the compromise legislation decreed that Indians were no longer required to supply labor as a personal service to their *encomenderos*. The Spaniards' labor requirements were met though a variety of methods: the *repartimiento*, or system of draft labor organized by crown officials; offers of cash wages; and through debt peonage, whereby Spanish miners, landowners, and other employers offered advances of money and goods and thus "bound" their Indian employees to their service until the debts were cleared. Such work arrangements became established by the beginning of the seventeenth century, the dominance of one over the other entirely dependent on local economic circumstances and labor supply.

One consideration here is an evaluation of the Spanish state. Although it is clear that legislation was often ignored by bureaucrat and colonist alike, it is also evident that the Spanish state sought some control over the settlers and that conflicts or tensions between Spaniard and Indian would not always be resolved in favor of the former. Such a "divide and rule" strategy introduced a subtle element into Spanish colonialism.

Within the Spanish legal system, the Indians were considered minors and wards of the courts. Despite their exploitation and maltreatment, they did receive some protection and consideration, even if it was (as it was quite frequently) as a pawn in the power struggles between the church, the state, and the colonists. Originally, the state encouraged the maintenance of two separate and distinct (certainly not "equal") settlement patterns: the *república de indios* and the *república de españoles*. The rationale was to permit the continuation, as far as was possible, of the traditional life-style and organization of the Indian communities, the link between them and their Spanish rulers being the Indian elite and priests.

Demographic decline of the indigenous populations rendered such continuity difficult; control of the movement of Spaniards and non-Indians from urban areas into the countryside and into Indian towns proved almost impossible. The other side of the equation was the migration of Indians away from their communities to towns and cities, or to seek work in mines and on haciendas (large landed estates). This point will be elaborated on later. One point to remember, however, is that Spanish law and, indeed, indigenous use of the Spanish legal system to protect ownership of land, to petition for grievances against corrupt officials, and so forth, underlined the Spanish crown's commitment to preservation of Indian communities even if the eventual results were less than satisfactory.

Postconquest Society and the Indian

The type of society that the conquerors and settlers tried to create in the New World was one that closely resembled the society they came from in Spain. Such a society implied an ordered, hierarchical, status-conscious world and its values to which Spaniards subscribed, buttressed by the Catholic faith. As far as categories went, the Indians were equated with the European peasantry. As such they occupied the lowest rung of the social ladder with the additional dimension of race—an Indian peasantry ("brown") subject to a Spanish ruling elite (white). The social position of the Indian was not fixed. Although in the immediate postconquest years, there existed quite a rigid race/class system with a close correlation between race and occupation, by the eighteenth century colonial society was very different, much more fluid, racial distinctions made very difficult by the multiplicity of racial categories that far surpassed a simple division of Indian, black, mestizo, and Spaniard. Although nonwhite groups could not hold royal/bureaucratic positions, enter the church, bear arms, enter the universities (which precluded admittance to the professions—law and medicine), beneath this level they were to be found in all walks of life—artisans, blacksmiths, petty merchants, farmers, traders, muleteers. Indians could move up the social ladder by "passing" from one ethnic group to another, that of the mestizo, the offspring of a Spaniard and an Indian. Mestizos occupied an ambiguous position in colonial society without any defined corporate identity. They could be found as members of elite families, often "passing" as Spaniards, and they were often the object of contempt, regarded as vicious and ignorant. Thus, although race was a variable in the determination of an individual's position in society, it was not the exclusive criterion: family background, personal and political contacts, and economic occupation combined with racial characteristics were all taken into consideration.

It should be emphasized, however, that such fluidity could change over time. One example. In the early years of conquest, the Spanish state encouraged Spaniards to marry Indian women to give some stability to the nascent colonial settlements and to create, ostensibly, channels for the transferral of Spanish culture to the indigenous peoples. By the end of the sixteenth century, however, through immigration of Spanish women from Spain and increasing numbers of mestizo women accepted as "white," there was an adequate pool of marriage partners for Spanish men. Consequently, in the following centuries few Spaniards of high social status seriously considered marrying Indian women.

Most of the postconquest control of the surviving indigenous populations was predicated on the cooperation between Indian leaders (*curacas* in Peru, *caciques* in Mexico) and the Spanish colonists and bureaucracy. The physical base of Indian survival was the maintenance of traditional society with a focus on the individual community and its lands. A central consideration here is that, despite the gradual disintegration of many of the indigenous societies, the Indians under Spanish rule were not a malleable mass who responded unthinkingly to the European presence and remained passive, one-dimensional backdrops to Spanish development. Despite the exploitative and miserable conditions under which the majority of them existed during three centuries of Spanish rule (and still do in contemporary Latin America), there was a vitality to many of the communities supported by their ability to *adapt* rapidly to Hispanic ways without necessarily forfeiting their traditional customs and beliefs.

In this final section I want to comment on three broad responses of the Indians to Spanish rule: *rebellion, adaptation*, and *dissolution*. They were not successive responses and their intensity differed according to time and place and wider pressures that emanated from the Spanish world.

Indian rebellions and riots were common enough throughout the colonial period. Their aims and objectives were generally directed to solving local problems, often in the form of a corrupt Spaniard or priest, or to protecting land boundaries. The goals, therefore, were not to overthrow Spanish rule, only to preserve the status quo. The latter desire was particularly relevant in the late eighteenth century, especially in Mexico. As population grew, as demand for land increased, and as Spanish landowners attempted to expand their holdings and their profits, traditional rights enjoyed by Indians (access to pasturage, water, firewood from the landowner's property) began to be eroded. Protests and riots often ensued as landowners abruptly revoked the "rights" of the local Indians or tried to charge them for such "services."

There were a few notable exceptions to this pattern. The Taki Onqoy movement of the 1560s swept over the Central Andean area. Based on traditional Andean beliefs, its millenarian "message" was that if the Andean people wished to suffer no longer, they must reject all Spanish influences—language, food, clothing, customs, and, of most significance, the Catholic faith. Rejection of Christianity was sufficient for the Spanish authorities to embark on a campaign to stamp out the indigenous movement. There was no evidence, however, that the supporters of the movement ever intended a military uprising against the Spaniards. For the Spaniards, the real threat appeared to be the vitality of traditional indigenous beliefs and their deities, despite the endeavors of the missionaries.

Despite the Spaniards' fears of the development of armed indigenous revolt, or "race warfare," the reality of such an occurrence was minimal. One explanation lies with the structure of traditional indigenous society—characterized by local community identity and autonomy, which served to fragment the indigenous populations as a whole into atomized units, often engaged in local ethnic rivalries. Such fragmentation posed difficulties for any mass, panregional, unified Indian revolt against the Spaniards.

The Indian communities experienced transformations over the centuries. Although, where practical, they were permitted to maintain their traditional leaders, their political organization was modified. The local governments were modeled after the municipal councils of Spain, the *cabildos*. Such "government" permitted the Indian officials to carry out royal orders, collect tribute and other taxes levied on the Indians, and assure the provision of labor for the Spaniards. The reproduction of the community and its survival over time depended on the corporate identity of its members, often enhanced by the maintenance of a community treasury, a church, and, in the larger communities, a hospital. Increasingly, the postconquest Indian society became characterized by an ambiguous mixture of traditional and Hispanic customs and influences. Concepts of time, value, and place began to reflect the Hispanic world, especially with the introduction of money (required for tribute). European tools and methods of work began to find their way into the traditional Indian communities.

Within the communities themselves, native and Hispanic ways existed side by side. On the one hand, there was considerable retention of traditional community obligations and communal property; on the other hand, community members took advantage of the opportunities that the wider Spanish colonial economy offered—sale of local agricultural produce and artisan crafts to local and regional markets. Despite the communal orientation of the Indian communities, they were far from egalitarian. Distinctions prevailed: the Indian "officials" and elite, traders, artisans, farmers, and notaries. Yet, one noticeable development of postconquest Indian society was a relative "leveling" between the traditional native elite and their subjects. Under Spanish rule, the latter could achieve positions of political power within the community that never would have been possible in their traditional power structures. Far from resulting in complete Hispanization of the Indian community, members' acquisitions from the Spanish culture often served to strengthen the communities. Far from being static, they were in a state of gradual transformation and adaptation to their new colonial condition.

The Spanish world was never very far away from that of the Indian. Despite the principle of maintaining two separate societies, the links between the two, personified by the Indian elite, priests, *corregidores*, migrant Indian workers, gradually began to blur the boundaries between Indian and Spanish. Community Indians were often compelled to seek temporary work either in the silver mines or on the Spaniards' lands to earn enough money to pay their tribute. Some returned, some stayed, gradually to become absorbed and acculturated into Hispanic society, adopting non-Indian dress and speaking Spanish. Declines in the vitality of the Indian communities (by no means a uniform trend either spatially or temporally) were often due not so much to demographic decline, especially in the eighteenth century, as to the movements between town and countryside, to the tendency of mestizo offspring to enter the lower levels of the Spanish world rather than remain in Indian society, and to Indians who simply chose to become full-time employees of Spanish and mestizo employers and the attendant acculturation. As James Lockhart has so aptly commented:

> A very deep tendency in the Indies was for Spanish society to grow at the expense of Indian society, resulting everywhere in the gradual long-term decline of the Indian corporations as such. . . . The history of Indians in Spanish America . . . is partly the story of an ultimately declining group, and partly that of a people making a broad

> series of successful adaptations to a new situation . . . one is more inclined to speak of a gradual transformation of the indigenous population than of a decline.[6]

Conclusion

The response of the indigenous peoples of the New World were varied, broadly characterized by resistance, adaptation, acculturation, and marginalization. Laws devised by the Spanish state did offer a measure of protection to the Indians, many of whom maintained their corporate integrity. Much of that protective legislation was abolished in the nineteenth century, yet the survival of many indigenous peoples attests to their tenacity and resilience in the face of exploitative conditions and government policies that simultaneously deny the existence of the "Indian" yet discriminate against them. The conflict between different cultures continues today, not just in Latin America but in many regions of the world. "Different" continues to be used as a justification for dominance and subordination, for the relegation of people to the margins of society.

Surely we can do better than this?

Notes

1. Benjamin Keen, ed., *Latin American Civilization—History and Society, 1492 to the Present, 4th ed.* (Boulder, CO: Westview, 1986), p. 63.
2. Ibid., p. 70.
3. Ibid., p. 24.
4. Ibid., p. 23.
5. Guaman Poma de Ayala, *Nueva coronica y buen gobierno* (1615), as quoted by Rolena Adorno, *Guaman Poma: Writing and Resistance in Colonial Peru* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1986).
6. James Lockhart and Stuart Schwarz, *Early Latin America—A History of Colonial Spanish America and Brazil* (Cambridge, 1983), p. 165.

Bibliographic Suggestions

I deliberately selected materials for this essay from the books cited above, especially Keen's *Latin American Civilization* and Lockhart and Schwarz's *Early Latin America*. Both are available in paperback and are complementary in that Keen's work is a selection of extracts from primary materials, and Lockhart and Schwarz provide an interpretive synthesis of colonial Latin American history. Other works suitable for the classroom include the following:

Charles Gibson, *Spain in America* (New York, 1966).
Lyle N. McAlister, *Spain and Portugal in the New World, 1492-1700* (Minnesota, 1984).
Michael C. Meyer and William L. Sherman, *The Course of Mexican History* (Oxford, 1979). Unfortunately, there is not, to date, a comparable overview of Peruvian history.

CONCEPTS AND ISSUES IN STUDYING LATIN AMERICAN POLITICAL LIFE

Lawrence S. Graham

Both complacency and stereotypes have long been a part of the Latin American images circulating throughout the United States. Neither proximity (as is the case with Texas and the Southwest) nor remoteness (as occurs in New York and New England) has ever really served to facilitate an understanding of the region in its own terms. Latin America and the United States remain two very distinct worlds, today as in the past. As a consequence, as we approach the end of this century, few U.S. citizens perceive that the future and the well-being of this country are closely connected with those of Latin America. This is especially true in the political world.

Twice in this century official Washington has attempted to transform inter-American affiars. Such was the case with the presidencies of Franklin Delano Roosevelt (the Good Neighbor Policy) and John Fitzgerald Kennedy (the Alliance for Progress). Despite good intentions and manifestations of enlightened self-interest, not only have these endeavors constituted the exception in U.S.-Latin American relations but also today they symbolize little more than brief interludes, quickly by-passed by more pressing issues and concerns. In hindsight, the primacy of the European and the Pacific theaters for the United States during World War II displaced the reversal Roosevelt intended to carry out in U.S. policy toward Latin America. Likewise, the Cuban Missile Crisis and the sensitivities surrounding U.S.-Soviet relations placed security interests ahead of the social agenda Kennedy sought to establish for ameliorating mass poverty and creating new opportunities as an escape valve from the confines of underdevelopment int he Americas.

As we approach the end of the twentieth century, it is becoming more and more apparent that U.S. hegemony in world affairs—as was the case earlier with British hegemony—is being transcended by a more pluralistic set of international relations and by circumstances beyond the control of a single country. These shifts in turn are affecting inevitably the U.S.-Latin American relationship. Center stage at the present moment is the international debt question. Concentrated in U.S. private banks, the size of the debt coupled with the fact that the major debtor nations are in Latin America (with Brazil and Mexico at the top of the list) argues for reassessment of the importance of Latin America for long-term U.S. security interests. Yet this is an issue for which the United States lacks the resources to impose a solution unilaterally. The reason is that there simply is no short-term and easy exit from the debt trap. It is becoming increasingly clear that nothing short of a redefined international order is in the making.

In this new order, while the United States will continue to play a major role, it is not likely to be one in which the United States will occupy the place of a hegemonic power with the capacity to set the terms under which international business and international affairs are to be conducted, as was the case with the Bretton Woods Agreements at the end of World War II.

These introductory paragraphs illustrate one essential point: if we are to understand political life in Latin America and why it is of importance to U.S. citizens, we need to find a more concrete way of demonstrating the relevance of understanding patterns of politics and political behavior so different from our own. Seen from the perspective of international studies, this is but a part of the whole need to internationalize perspectives within the United States, be they academic or business. The particular argument presented here is that understanding Latin America warrants a far greater percentage of our time than has been the case to date.

The issues just posed assume a good deal of prior knowledge that the average student is not likely to have. Thus, to first approximate the Latin American political world, we need some sort of framework that can link critical issues and concepts with the standard categories into which public events, as reported on the evening news, are usually divided. Such is the purpose of chart 1.

The objective in this case is to refocus thinking in such a way that the student is challenged to begin to think about politics as the outcome of very different cultural perceptions. To do so requires communicating the interrelatedness of things—how the political world is an integral part of economic and social relationships and how closely domestic and foreign affairs are linked together. In the past our perception of politics and markets, the public and the private sector, domestic and foreign affairs, were all predicated on the assumption that we were dealing for the most part with mutually exclusive phenomena. But today such divisions are becoming increasingly blurred as our economy and national life are being internationalized.

While the immediate reaction may be that to pose such a variety of issues and perspectives is to overwhelm the neophyte, the key to integrating such an approach with things international, in general, and Latin

Chart 1. Conceptualizing the Political World in Latin America

		Approaches	
		Concepts	Issues
Arenas	Economic	State-dominated economies	Role of private sector
	Political	Mass-based politics	Redefining democracy
	Social	Societal integration	Role of language & culture
	International	Hegemonic power	U. S.' role in world affairs

America, in particular, is to begin with concepts and issues closest to home. What follows is an illustration of four themes central to understanding the Latin American political world that are linked at the same time to getting the student to open up his or her mind to the significance of international affairs. The point to be emphasized here is that it does make a difference how we conceptualize and think about events surrounding us that fall in the category of occurrences over which we may have little direct control but that directly affect our daily lives in one way or another.

The Business-Government Relationship

In every society there is a business-government relationship. Even in the Soviet Union, where the public sector and the state dominate the economy, there is an identifiable business community and a complex set of economic relationships linking individual producers and entrepreneurs with state-led organizations and institutions. But the patterns vary widely from country to country. The U.S. pattern belongs to one type of economic system: an industrial market economy. Our economic history is essentially one in which the role of government has been limited. The primary impetus to governmental regulation has been the determination to establish a set of mechanisms that would control excesses in the marketplace that would either reduce competition or lead to rapid acceleration or decline in the national economy.

Like the United States and other Western countries, the Latin American republics also have market economies. But they differ in two principal ways. Their economic systems are much less developed than those of the United States, Western Europe, and Japan. Second, their experience historically has been characterized by active state intervention in the domestic economy to create more dynamic growth and development. At the same time, the development experience of individual Latin American states varies greatly, from Brazil (a country the size of the United States, with the world's eighth-largest economy) to Haiti (a small Caribbean island republic that has one of the smallest and least-developed economies in the world). The easiest way to capture these disparities is to use the World Bank's annual *World Development Report* and the categories established for differentiating among countries.

Economically speaking, all the Latin American states belong to what people call the Third World, or the "developing countries." Seven (Venezuela, Uruguay, Mexico, Panama, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile) are ranked as "upper middle-income countries" by the World Bank. These are countries with important industrial sectors and significant commercial agriculture. Twelve fall in the category of "middle-income economies" (Cuba, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Peru, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Honduras, and Bolivia). These are countries that are less developed than those in the previous group, yet fall in the middle in a worldwide context. Only one Latin American country (Haiti) belongs in the category assigned to the poorest countries: the "low-income economies." Thus Mexico, which is a poor country when compared with the United States, comes out on a worldwide basis with a relatively high per capita income in terms of Gross National Product (GNP): $2,240. In contrast, the average for the low-income economies is a GNP per capita income of $260.

Despite these disparities, there is a constant present in all these countries along another axis and this is where the political and the economic worlds become interlinked: active government intervention in the national economy. This is important to single out in order to communicate the point that government intervention in the economy is not to be equated with socialism. Here it is instructive to separate the cases of Cuba and Nicaragua (two small countries) from the rest. If government intervention in the economy is not to be equated with socialism, then the question must be raised as to why then state domination of the economy in all of Latin America? As the paper by Glade explains in further detail, this question has two dimensions: a historical one and a contemporary one. From the standpoint of understanding political life, the most important is the latter: the pattern established since World War II in which the state has become the initiator and the accelerator of economic growth throughout the region. In the absence of a well-developed domestic private sector and in the face of increasingly strong nationalistic reactions against foreign firms and banks, most people within Latin America have preferred to see the hand of the state strengthened so as to determine more effectively the conditions under which foreign business will operate. Along with this pattern of increased regulation of foreign and domestic business has come the practice of the state's taking the initiative in organizing state enterprises in areas where national interests have argued for increased economic productivity without reliance on foreign firms (viz, the movement in the oil industry throughout the region from foreign-owned firms to state-owned enterprises controlling the production and the marketing of petroleum and gas). As a consequence, throughout Latin America one finds mixed economies that vary from weak and severely constrained private sectors in Cuba and Nicaragua to very strong and well-developed private sectors in Argentina and Brazil.

One encounters yet another variation in how firms are organized. There are essentially three kinds of firm in Latin America: state-owned enterprises, privately owned domestic firms (either entirely owned by private domestic capital or joint ventures involving the participation of foreign firms and the national government), and international businesses and banks. All this is of tremendous importance in analyzing Latin American politics in that the distinctions between what is public and private in the United States are much less clear in Latin America and quite likely to be blurred. These differences can be of great importance in how you assess the actions of a government.

Prevalence of the Democratic Ideal

Despite the image of dictatorships and coups, the Latin American political world is one in which the same general democratic values that are cherished in the United States have widespread acceptance and popularity. Such concepts as institutionalism, the rule of law, individual liberties, basic human rights, the accountability of public officials to the people, and limited government have a long history within the region for the same reasons they do in North America. The Latin American republics became independent countries in the early nineteenth century, breaking their ties with Spain and Portugual (as the U.S. had done earlier with Great Britain and Haiti had with France). In the years that followed, they turned widely to Westen European and U.S. political experience in the search for new institutional models that could be adapted to Latin American conditions.

For the most part, however, the political record has been quite different. Rather than gradual evolution whereby larger numbers of people became incorporated into the electorate over an extended period of time and elected executives and legislatures became the norm, the fluctuation between dictatorship and democracy has been constant. Since World War II, there have been three notable exceptions: Colombia (whose limited two-party system has its origins in events reaching back into the nineteenth century), Costa Rica (a country that underwent a peaceful revolution in 1948 under Liberación Nacional, which has led to the development of a stable democratic system with wide-scale mass commitment), and Venezuela (where the multiparty system that emerged in 1958 after the overthrow of its last dictator has evolved into a system dominated largely by two parties).

Generally speaking, with the exceptions just noted, one can identify a certain cyclical pattern in Latin American politics, especially in South America. This is especially true of the late 1960s and the 1970s, when there was a trend toward authoritarian regimes dominated by various combinations of military and civilian bureaucratic elites. It is also true of the 1980s. At present throughout South America there is widespread interest in democratization, in the relaxation of strong central controls, in the exit of the military from power, and in the return to civilian rule.

Yet, just as this new cycle of governance was getting under way, it coincided with a very different economic cycle, one that now threatens to undercut this revival of democratic forces. Excessive indebtedness in the region, spiraling inflation, and decline in the availability of new investment capital all have come to raise real concerns as to whether or not popular expectations regarding improved social services and greater access to food and housing can be met.

Whatever the outcome, all the Latin American republics have become or are rapidly becoming mass-based political systems. As a consequence, the orthodox economic policies advocated by such respected international entities as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank are increasingly running into strong domestic opposition. Such policies work best in the context of limited governments with the capacity to restrain the articulation of mass demands and necessities. The problem is that such policies, which were widely followed during the 1970s, coincided with stringent centralized controls and the repression of mass demands. Today this is much less likely to be the case. Whether Right authoritarian (the case of Paraguay and Chile) or Left authoritarian (the case of Cuba and Nicaragua), quasi-authoritarian (the case of Mexico) or quasi-democratic (the case of Colombia), government elites throughout the region must respond to popular pressures and take into consideration mass wishes and aspirations. Mass politics throughout Latin America is here to stay, even though suitable adjustments to this phenomenon in these countries and outside have yet to be worked out.

As a rule of thumb, however, there is a major difference in how democracy is usually defined in Latin America. According to Anglo-American political traditions, democracy is most often associated with procedural issues tied to individual liberties and the individual's right to vote. In the Latin American context—given the restricted nature of these social systems historically—the emphasis is much more likely to fall on participation, egalitarian aspirations, and the mobilization of mass pressures to affect political outcomes.

While Mexico is frequently characterized as an authoritarian system, it has many of the attributes alluded to above, and this is why one can encounter such widely different interpretations in the United States and in Latin America as to what is occurring inthe course of the Nicaraguan Revolution, just as was the case with the Mexican Revolution and its aftermath in the 1930s and 1940s. If on the one hand there is strong sentiment that automatically places Nicaragua in the Left authoritarian camp, others—emphasizing continued commitment to mass participation and the important;role of mass organizations linked to strong grass-roots support—would label Nicaragua quasi-democratic.

Emotions are so high concerning the Nicaraguan case that it is difficult to get U.S. citizens to understand the importance of seeking to fathom these differences in perception and in the interpretation of national realities first, before acting either against or on behalf of what is, after all, their revolution, not ours. Perhaps Mexico is a bit easier to handle, although it is not necessarily better understood. For a long time now, elections have been held there on a regular and continuous basis. Despite restricted choices, because of the dominance of a single party, it has long been very important for the regime to ensure mass turnout and to expose the party's candidates to the people by way of an extensive pre-electoral campaign. There is likewise great sensitivity to mass protest and to the elaboration of public politices that will respond to mass demands. This is not to ague that this is a political system without abuses, without corruption, and without serious problems, for all these elements are present. But, for all the disruptions that have occurred since 1982, it remains a government that is legitimate for wide sectors of the Mexican public and accepted as the heir to the aspirations unleashed earlier in this century by the Mexican Revolution.

Elsewhere in the Latin America of the 1980s, mass protest as a consequence of food shortages or excessive price increases serves to communicate to those in power the strength of popular sentiment. Increasingly, as we move to the end of this century, the political options open really are but two: evolution toward mass-based democratic systems or evolution toward authoritarian ones (utilizing a revolutionary rhetoric and increasingly stringent anti-American postures). In this case, the regime experience of the 1970s with military-dominated governments—of which the Pinochet regime in Chile is the only survivor—represents a passing political phenomenon. The other instance—the Stroessner regime in Paraguay—is the last remaining example of the personalist dictatorships that characterized so much of nineteenth-century Latin American experience and were carried over into the twentieth in such instances as the Somozas in Nicaragua. Aside from exceptions such as these, the issues today and for the rest of this century concern essentially how the mass element in politics is to be mobilized and dealt with as popular aspirations to escape from subsistence living, poor health, illiteracy, and unemployment come to the fore. The demands among the poor for improved social services that have repeatedly been pushed to the background since the 1940s have returned with a vengeance. They rank at the top of the political agenda in an increasingly large number of Latin American countries, without the tolerance today so often demanded in the past of putting off until tomorrow attention to these social issues.

Societal Integration

The third area singled out for attention—the social system and society at large—cannot be separated from the foregoing. At the foundation of this movement toward mass-based political systems lies the extensive socioeconomic changes that have swept across the Latin American regime over the last half century and continue to go on. The social revolution that has been going on quietly and sometimes not so quietly since World War II is the movement of millions of people throughout the region from rural to urban areas. Whereas this rural-urban migration has largely peaked in Brazil and the Southern Cone countries and these countries today are essentially urban-based societies, it is still going on in Mexico and really just getting under way in most of Central America.

As a consequence of these transformations, Latin American politics is increasingly an urban-based phenomenon. Consideration of the rural-based population retains considerable importance, especially as rural violence and terrorism increase. But all over the Latin American region today the first encounter one has with the political world comes in the form of ever-expanding central cities. The most salient examples are Mexico City and Guadalajara (in Mexico), São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro (in Brazil), Buenos Aires (in Argentina), and Lima (in Peru).

While Latin America's metropolises are removed from those of the United States, the migration and the flow of rural peoples to urban areas in search of jobs and better lives are not. Couple with this outflow of population the guerrilla warfare and the upheavals that are taking place in the Central American countryside—in Nicaragua, El Salvador, Honduras, and Guatemala—and you have the problem of increased border crossings into U.S. territory, legal and illegal. So extensive has this immigration become and so different is it from the earlier patterns of immigration that have characterized U.S. history, that it is transforming social life across the southern United States, from California through Texas to Florida. Although Spanish has always been spoken in California, the Southwest, and Florida—not to mention in cities in the North such as New York and Chicago—what is different is the extent of the influx of new population and the strains it is placing on earlier forms of assimilation—patterns of living and adaptation that the U.S. public has taken largely for granted. In many areas in these cities and the surrounding countryside (in places such as South Texas) bilinguality is an everyday fact of life. But despite the use of Spanish and English on the ballot and modifications in school curriculum, mainstream America is a long way away from accepting this new reality. Hence, the new debate over national language. While this is not the first time such an issue has occurred in the United States (since toward the end of the last century there was a movement to make German a second language), the absence of a real border between the United States and Mexico—and hence Latin America (be it the Caribbean for South Florida or Puerto Rico for greater New York City)—raises an issue that is substantially different.

German-speaking immigration to the United States peaked and then waned and is now really a question of past history. But the flow of population northward in search of jobs, education, and opportunities is not a passing phenomenon. Like it or not, interaction between North Americans and Latin Americans will continue to be a salient aspect of the new politics emerging in this country. While I am probably in a distinct minority, I think that such issues as the move in individual states to make English the official language by law is but the harbinger of a very different social world that is emerging in the United States, with enormous political ramifications. In these terms one of the great unanswered questions in U.S. society is how an expanding Hispanic population—for which it is not possible to see an end—is to be assimilated. What is becoming more and more clear is that the older patterns of assimilation and the assumption that English will remain the main vehicle through which to enter the mainstream of U.S. life are likely to be questioned more and more by larger numbers of people.

Internationalization of the Economy

The 1980s are proving to be a decade full of enormous changes for the United States and Latin America. At the outset of the decade few people questioned the hegemonic status of the United States in the world economy. In looking to the past, most Americans assumed that their economy had been and would continue to be the world's largest and most important. But since 1982 a number of shocks have been taking place that are more than a series of isolated events; they underlie a major transition. First there was the devaluation of the Mexican peso and the emergence of the debt crisis, initially with Mexico and subsequently with every major Latin American state. Thereafter it became apparent that the trade deficit in the United States was not a short-term but a long-term problem for the country. Following this came the news that the United States had moved from the status of a creditor nation, where it had been comfortably situated throughout this century, to a debtor nation. More recently, while the business community has come to accept the loss of U.S. leadership in the steel and the automobile industries, it was assumed that in informatics the United States would keep its technological edge—only to discover in 1986 and 1987 that American firms in the computer field, especially in the semiconductor industry, had lost their competitive advantage. The Silicon Valley in California (the symbol of the new industrial model for the United States) in the process has become not a bastion of economic autarky but yet another center subject to the internationalization of the U.S. economy.

What these transformations are all about and what their relevance to this discussion of the Latin American political world is concern the loss of hegemonic status by the United States. Given the tremendous growth of the world economy and the economic expansion experienced by Japan and Western Europe, what is apparent is that, while the U.S. economy will continue to be the world's largest, it will no longer be the driving force and the source of the terms and the conditions regulating other nations. The Bretton Woods Agreements and the whole economic system set up to regularize international economic affairs at the end of World War II were predicated on the strength of the U.S. economy and the dominant role played by the U.S. dollar. These conditions have been and are changing and with these changes come tremendous consequences for U.S.-Latin American relations.

During the 1970s in intellectual circles in Latin America dependency theory was very much in vogue. In reinterpreting Marx and adapting his ideas to Latin American reality, a generation of writers emerged who explained Latin American underdevelopment as a consequence of the exploitative relationships that had developed between the Latin American states and the world centers of capital and industrialization, as epitomized by the United States. An influential variation became that coined by the Brazilian Fernando Henrique Cardoso, "associated dependent development," in which national elites were linked to what was perceived essentially as an exploitative relationship.

By the 1980s what was becoming apparent was that the economic vulnerability of the Latin American states to worldwide economic trends was no longer the exclusive property of the developing countries. The United States and the Western European countries, as well, were becoming equally penetrated and vulnerable societies in terms of international competition and the flows of investment capital. In U.S.–Latin American relations, the debt question pointed to a situation where the problem was as much a U.S. one, with enormous ramifications for the domestic economy, as it was a Latin American one. As renegotiations of the debt have proceeded ahead on a country-by-country basis—with Mexico, Chile, Brazil, and Venezuela at the forefront—U.S. policymakers, public and private, have had to become more and more cognizant of domestic conditions within each country. The individual stances of the national governments, the stability of their regimes or their weaknesses, the limits of tolerance in the sacrifices demanded of the masses, the inability to control inflation or to come up with innovative and new economic policies have all served as a catalyst. The contribution has been to get policymakers outside Latin America to pay more attention to the economic, political, and social contexts within which individual Latin American governments must act.

To date, the Reagan administration has given few signals that it is willing to consider negotiation of the Nicaraguan question a matter for multilateral rather than unilateral action. But already in economic relations it is clear that multilateral solutions are being explored—be they negotiations among the United States, the major Western European states, and Japan over how to stabilize the U.S. dollar internationally or how to bring into line the four hundred-odd banks that must negotiate with Brazilian authorities before new terms can be worked out for handling that country's indebtedness.

In all this there are many, many problems yet to be resolved. But the stance first taken by President Alan García in Peru in limiting interest payments by pegging them to export earnings and now by the Sarney government in Brazil point to the fact that there are very definite limits to the extent to which the United States can dictate the terms of interest rate and repayment. What is emerging is an interactive model in international economic relations, focused on bargaining and the search for solutions mutually acceptable to the major participants. Much more remains and needs to be done.

By extension, there are a range of more purely political issues likewise whose solution could be enhanced by accepting the principle of multilateral negotiations and divergent political, social, and economic agendas. The Central American question is very much a case in point, at the core of which lies the problem presented by Nicaragua and continued guerrilla activity in El Salvador, Honduras, and Guatemala. To this must be added the economic and political difficulties being experienced by Mexico. When this list is summed up, even in the most superficial way, what it should clearly indicate is the importance of the U.S.–Latin American relationship for the mutual benefit and well-being of all concerned. The nature of U.S.–Latin American relations does make a great deal of difference and is of great import for the United States.

Conclusions

The illustrations taken from four different areas in the U.S.–Latin American relationship—the economic arena, the political arena, the social arena, and the international arena—all point in the direction of approaching the political world cross-nationally from the vantage point of international studies. Equally important is the development of a perspective that attempts to see the broader picture and the interrelatedness of economic, political, and social actions. Long assumed to be relatively unimportant in terms of worldwide U.S. interests, the time has come to argue for increased attention to the Latin American political world. In looking back over the last four decades, a great deal has been accomplished in convincing U.S. citizens of the importance of our European relationship. In light of the disregard for things European during the interwar years, a great deal has been accomplished in establishing awareness of the importance of this relationship. It is equally possible and essential in the years immediately ahead to accomplish this with the Latin American world. The place to begin is with those aspects closest to the United States: the U.S.-Mexican relationship, the debt question, transnational migration, the social and political upheavals traumatizing life in Central America. From there it should then be possible to expand perceptions to include areas of South America—such as the Brazilian subcontinent—as important for the U.S. agenda as East-West relationships.

CENTRAL AMERICA IN THE 1980s

Richard N. Adams

Why Has Central America Come to Our Attention?

Increasingly since the end of World War II, Central America has been in the news. Television cameras and news reporters have taken American audiences to the mountains, capital cities, villages, and jungles of a region that is geographically very close, but rarely thought about by North Americans. A few years ago, a national survey reported that something over 70 percent of the American people either had never heard of Central America, or had no idea where it might be.

Nevertheless, Central America is important because the region is very poor and extremely dependent economically on the United States. Its endemic poverty means that its people constantly confront serious problems, the solutions for which can affect the United States. Also, the Panama Canal has always been important to the United States, and regional events that appear to threaten that waterway are a cause for concern. But more generally, Central America is seen by many to be "our own backyard," and what goes on there is bound to affect us, sooner or later.

The events behind the upsurge in Central American news began even before the Spanish conquest in the sixteenth century. The Spanish who colonized the region found it very difficult to create the kind of wealth in silver that their brethren were extracting from Mexico and the Andes. The region's wealth could only be had by forcing the Indians to produce a few exportable crops and to weave cloth to be sold. But even this "wealth" was very unevenly distributed. It was mainly in the northern part of the region, what is today Guatemala and El Salvador, and along the Pacific coast in Nicaragua that there was sufficient labor. In the rest of Central America Indians were generally killed off by slavery and disease, or they avoided the Spanish by remaining in the thinly populated, hot, humid, Atlantic coast, a region the Spanish found uninhabitable.

Thus wherever Indians were available for labor, they were extensively exploited. This practice intensified with the development of export coffee production after independence, in the nineteenth century. Both the Indian and the non-Indian, or mestizo, population were increasing. In Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua, a labor pool was kept available by pushing peasant farmers, Indian and non-Indian, off their lands, forcing them to work on the farms exporting coffee—and later cotton, beef, and other products. Until World War II, labor was controlled through a legal system that served to hide the frequent Indian revolts and the growing resentment in the non-Indian poor population.

From 1950 until about 1980, two things tended to hide the growing problem. One was an economic expansion that gradually increased national income in the Central American countries; this veil dropped when OPEC raised the price of petroleum in the middle 1970s. The increased oil prices, coupled with very bad governmental financial planning, led most of the countries to contract debts far beyond their capacity to pay. Expanded production of crops and beef specifically benefited a few large producers in Central America and consumers in the United States. It provided no improvement in the life of the landless rural poor of Central America.

However, there was sufficient unpopulated land that the rural population could migrate and still find a way to survive. There were limits, though, and increasingly Salvadorans went to Honduras and to Guatemala, Guatemalans found work in neighboring Mexico, and people from all over the region migrated to the United States. Hence, toward the end of the 1970s, the region was confronted with a sharp drop in income, coupled with a closing up of areas to which migrants could go.

After 1959 the success of the Cuban Revolution impressed many Central Americans, who felt that their existing system was never going to permit people to find a better life. They were encouraged by Cuba's successful revolution to think that revolution might achieve improvements that were not possible in the existing systems. When the new Cuban government declared that it preferred a centralized, socialist, form of government to that of the previous capitalist regime, and when it sought closer ties with eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, the United States initiated a trade embargo (which continues today) to try to force Cuba to give up this policy through isolating it from the U.S. market. The major result of this policy has been to force Cuba to trade much more with the Eastern bloc countries.

It was no coincidence that the revolutions in Central America developed specifically in Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua, the regions of most intense labor exploitation. In 1979 the Nicaraguan Revolution established a new government that declared its wish to avoid the heavy dependence on the United States that had characterized Central America for the previous hundred years, and a preference for a socialist economy. The United States, long discomfited by the Cuban situation, also became nervous about the Nicaraguan regime and, at first, began to withdraw support; later, it more overtly began to sponsor a counterrevolutionary force, known as the "Contras."

What has brought Central America most immediately to our attention, then, is the fact that there has been one successful revolution—in Nicaragua—and that revolutions are still in progress in El Salvador and Guatemala. These revolutions are deeply based in the growing poverty of the region and on the growing numbers of Central Americans who have no effective access to the limited wealth that their countries can provide. While Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador have instituted limited land redistribution programs, Nicaragua's revolutionary program is more extensive and more radical. The current U.S. policy, however, maintains a deep fear of socialism, seeing in the Nicaraguan efforts a threat that all Central America may become socialistic, endangering not only the Panama Canal, but the United States itself. President Reagan told the American people at one point that if the revolutionary activities were not stopped, we could expect to see Nicaraguan troops invading Harlingen, Texas.

What Do We Need to Know about Central America?

To better assess the dangers posed by the revolutions of Central America, we need more information on Central America itself. Our understanding needs to be based on economic, humanistic, and political considerations.

"Central America" traditionally encompasses Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. These five countries, together with Mexico, were part of colonial New Spain, and all achieved their independence in the early 1820s. In the twentieth century, however, two new countries emerged in the isthmus. Panama became independent of Colombia in 1903, and Belize achieved its independence from Great Britain and Guatemala in 1981.

These countries share many conditions. All are tropical and quite mountainous. The two smallest nations face only one sea: Belize, the Caribbean, and El Salvador, the Pacific. All the rest contain significant volcanic and broken mountain territory and are bordered by both oceans. Also important is that all are small. The accompanying table compares them in terms of territorial size, population, and income per capita both with each other and with some of the states of the United States and European countries of similar size. What is immediately clear is that Central American countries can be similar to other states in terms of the size of their territories and populations, but their incomes differ sharply. Besides being small, then, they are very poor. The income per capita of the wealthiest, Costa Rica, is still only a quarter of that of West Virginia, one of our poorest states, and half that of the Netherlands (which is somewhat smaller); the income of El Salvador is only one-twentieth that of Massachusetts, almost identical in territorial size and very close in population, and 15 percent of that of Israel, which is almost the same size.

The economy that stands behind this poverty is basically agrarian. All the Central American countries depend for their principal income on a very limited number of exports—primarily coffee, cotton, and beef—and must compete on a world market where prices are determined by events far beyond their borders. To get a decent price for their products is often more a political than an economic problem. While their laboring population is largely derived from rural areas, that population's expulsion from farming areas has led to migration both from the urban areas (where there is excessive unemployment and underemployment already) and to other countries.

The quality of labor relations differs among the countries, but it is generally much worse in Guatemala and El Salvador, and better in Costa Rica. As the per capita income figures indicate, wages tend to be somewhat better in Costa Rica also, but tragically low in most of the other countries. The wage level is both an index of the problem and part of the cause.

Coupled with more difficult labor relations, the ruling sectors in Guatemala and El Salvador and in prerevolutionary Nicaragua were strongly reactionary, little inclined to allow the poorer sectors of the population access to real political participation. Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua now have very powerful military establishments. In contrast, Costa Rica disbanded its army in 1949, and has resisted reinstituting it. The military is by its very nature an instrument of force, and the agrarian and labor problems that have arisen in the two northernmost countries have been met not with civilian negotiation, but with armed force. Under the tutelage of the United States, both Panama and prerevolutionary Nicaragua created National Guards that, in effect, became their military force. That force was defeated in the Nicaraguan Revolution, but residues now form a central part of the Contras. In Panama the Guard is increasingly constricting the democratic process. Basically, the ruling powers—agrarian based and the military—fear the loss of control to a broader electorate, and also the loss of their properties to a socialist regime. They are very opposed to the Nicaraguan government and do not oppose the militaristic

Comparison of Central American Countries with European Countries and Similar U.S. States

COUNTRY	SIZE (sq. mi.)	POPULATION (millions, 1985)	INCOME ($/Capita)	
Belize	**8,867**	**166**	**$1,000**	**(1984)**
El Salvador	**8,260**	**4,981**	**$854**	**(1984)**
Israel	7,847	4,128	$5,609	(1983)
Massachusetts	8,257	5,822	$15,790	(1985)
Guatemala	**42,043**	**8,346**	**$1,085**	**(1984)**
Honduras	**43,277**	**4,499**	**$590**	**(1982)**
East Germany	41,768	16,686	$8,000	(1984)
Ohio	41,222	10,744	$12,979	(1985)
Tennessee	42,244	4,762	$10,934	(1985)
Nicaragua	**50,193**	**2,232**	**$804**	**(1980)**
North Carolina	52,584	6,255	$11,314	(1985)
Czechoslovakia	49,365	15,502	$5,800	(1980)
Costa Rica	**19,575**	**2,644**	**$2,238**	**(1981)**
West Virginia	24,181	1,936	$10,112	(1985)
Netherlands	15,770	14,481	$9,175	(1983)
Panama	**29,208**	**2,180**	**$1,116**	**(1978)**
South Carolina	31,055	3,347	$10,514	(1985)
Austria	32,374	7,451	$8,280	(1980)

solution promoted by the United States.

The agrarian economies and the need to import petroleum make all Central American countries very dependent on the outside market. Since the OPEC price increases of the mid-seventies, they have built up some of the highest per capita national debts in the world.

In short, Central America comprises a set of economically weak, small countries that are dependent on world market prices that require expensive imports, such as oil. They are, thus, both economically and militarily vulnerable to threats from the United States. Whether they, in turn, really constitute a national security threat to the United States has brought forth two very contrary views. The policy of the U.S. government since 1982 has been to regard them as a potential danger to the United States that can only be handled through military means. There are many, however, who feel that such a perspective is not appropriate. The feelings on this matter have become so highly politicized that it is difficult to discuss them without reflecting a bias. In an attempt to provide the reader with the positions as seen by some of their adherents, I conclude this brief essay with a number of quotations, grouped in accordance with whether they are in favor of the solution that resorts to military action sought by the Reagan administration, or in favor of a political solution to the issue.

In Favor of the Reagan Administration Position

"I think it's crucial that every possible step be taken to make sure that a Castro-type government does not come to power in Nicaragua because that would be a threat to every free nation in the Western Hemisphere."

—Richard Nixon, July 14, 1979

"We deplore the Marxist Sandinista takeover of Nicaragua and the Marxist attempts to destabilize El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras. We do not support United States assistance to any Marxist Government in this hemisphere and we oppose the Carter Administration aid program for the Government of Nicaragua. However, we will support the efforts of the Nicaraguan people to establish a free and independent government."

—Platform of Ronald Reagan's presidential campaign, August 4, 1980

"The Government of Nicaragua has imposed a new dictatorship; it has refused to hold elections it promised; it has seized control of most media and subjects all media to heavy prior censorship; it denied the bishops and priests of the Roman Catholic Church the right to say mass on radio during Holy Week; it insulted and mocked the Pope; it has driven the Miskito Indians from their homelands—burning their villages, destroying their crops, and forcing them into involuntary internment camps far from home; it has moved against the private sector and free labor unions; it condoned mob action against Nicaragua's independent human rights commission and drove the director of that commission into exile.

In short, after all these acts of repression by the Government, is it any wonder that opposition has formed? Contrary to propaganda, the opponents of the Sandinistas are not die-hard supporters of the previous Somoza regime. In fact, many are anti-Somoza heroes who fought beside the Sandinistas to bring down the Somoza Government. Now they have been denied any part in the new Government because they truly wanted democracy for Nicaragua, and they still do."

—Ronald Reagan, April 28, 1983

"If we have another Cuba in Central America, Mexico will have a big problem and we're going to have a massive wave of immigration. The effort to prevent this from happening is not going to excite Americans as much as the threat they would face if things go wrong."

....

"I think there's no chance [the Contras] will be able to overthrow the Government. In the resistance you have, it is said, perhaps 15,000 men with rifles, scattered around the open, unpopulated parts of the country, which is where guerrillas can hide. They can't go into the cities, which the Government is protecting with tanks and 75,000 men in the army, the militia and the security forces."

—William Casey, former CIA director, April 16, 1984

"Nicaragua constitutes a security problem for the United States because it is being rapidly integrated into the Marxist-Leninist world system. It is not that there is a trend for Marxist-Leninist control in Nicaragua, but an established control."

—Jeane J. Kirkpatrick, former United States ambassador to the United Nations, April 17, 1985

"Using Nicaragua as a base, the Soviets and Cubans can become the dominant power in the crucial corridor between North and South America. Established there, they will be in a position to threaten the Panama canal, interdict our vital Caribbean sea lanes and, ultimately, move against Mexico. Should that happen, desperate Latin peoples by the millions would begin fleeing north into the cities of the southern United States, or to wherever some hope of freedom remained."

—Ronald Reagan, in speech requesting $100 million in aid to the Contras, March 17, 1986

"We want to be a great power on the cheap. No Administration wants to undertake unpopular actions. In the case of Central America, this Administration did want to undertake that responsibility, but we were stopped by the Congress. But there were a lot of Americans who felt that this was such an enormous danger to the country that they were willing to act on their own. As long as they didn't violate the Neutrality Act or the Arms Export Control Act, how can anyone say that what they did was wrong?"

—Elliott Abrams, assistant secretary of state for inter-American affairs

Against the Reagan Administration Position

"It's a mistake for Americans to assume or to claim that every time an evolutionary change takes place or even an abrupt change takes place in this hemisphere that somehow it's a result of secret, massive Cuban intervention. The fact in Nicaragua is that the incumbent Government, the Somoza regime, had lost the confidence of the Nicaraguan people."

....

"I came back [from Nicaragua] far more ashamed of my country than at any time since the Vietnam War. The Nicaraguans are a generous people, a poor and often hungry people, who want to make a truly democratic revolution, and it is we who work to subvert their decency even as we demand more of it."

—Michael Harrington, national chairman,
Democratic Socialist Organizing Committee,
July 16, 1981

"Our most fundamental values are undermined when an Administration breaks the law, lies to its citizens and supports the same kinds of subversive actions we accuse our enemies of taking. Its actions in Nicaragua also endanger our national security by polarizing conflict in the region. Congress must tell the President that he cannot violate the law with impunity."

—Prof. Kenneth E. Sharpe, Swarthmore College,
April 9, 1983

"If Central America were not racked with poverty, there would be no revolution. If Central America were not racked with hunger there would be no revolution. If Central America were not racked with injustice, there would be no revolution. In short, there would be nothing for the Soviets to exploit. But unless those oppressive conditions change, the region will continue to seethe with revolution—with or without the Soviets."

....

"Instead of trying to do something about the factions or factors which breed revolution, this Administration has turned to massive military build-ups at a cost of hundreds of millions of dollars. Its policy is ever-increasing military assistance, endless military training, and further military involvement. This is a formula for failure. And it is a proven prescription for picking a loser. The American people know that we have been down this road before—and that it only leads to a dark tunnel of endless intervention."

....

"No one in this Congress or this country is under the delusion that the Sandinista Government is a model democracy or a force for stability. But the insurgents we have supported are the remnants of the old Somoza regime whose corruption, graft, torture, and despotism made it universally despised in Nicaragua. The Sandinistas may not be winners, but right now we are backing sure losers. We are doing for the Sandinista Marxists what they could not do for themselves. We are weakening the very groups inside Nicaragua which believe in a free and democratic society. And that is the sad irony of this Administration's policy."

—Sen. Christopher Dodd, (D-Connecticut)
April 28, 1983

"North American intervention in Nicaragua could lead to many Vietnams."

—Nguyen Co Thach, Vietnam's foreign
minister, September 7, 1983

"The right to sovereignty and to political independence possessed by the Republic of Nicaragua, like any other state of the region or of the world, should be fully respected and should not in any way be jeopardized by any military and paramilitary activities which are prohibited by principles of international law, in particular the principle that states should refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or the political independence of any state, and the principle concerning the duty not to intervene in matters within the domestic jurisdiction of a state, principles embodied in the United Nations Charter and the Charter of the Organization of American States."

—From ruling of the World Court in response to
Nicaraguan government's protest of the CIA mining
of Nicaraguan waters, May 11, 1984.

"I share the President's dismay at some of the things the Sandinistas have done. But I don't think we have any call to appoint ourselves as God's avenging angels. This is not a basic American position."

—Rep. Jim Wright (D-Tex), House majority
leader, February 23, 1984

Final Note

Are the Central American nations a threat to the United States? This is not an easy question to answer. Small things can be dangerous to big ones: microbes and viruses can bring down much larger animals. On the other hand, it might prove effective to help such countries seek a more robust development.

CONCEPTS AND THEMES FOR THE STUDY OF LATIN AMERICAN ECONOMIC LIFE

William P. Glade

Introduction

I'd like to start with a simple observation of which you and I are reminded every day: many of the kinds of problems and concerns that we have—balance of payments, inflation, urban congestion, pollution, and so on—are shared by the Italians, the Japanese, and, in fact, by the whole "Western" world, which extends roughly from Japan across the North Pacific to Canada and the United States and across the Atlantic to the British Isles, Scandinavia, France, and West Germany. Other kinds of preoccupation, problems, and concerns occupy the people who live just to the east: in the Soviet Union, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and so forth. Material problems concern them, but also questions of intellectual, religious, and political freedom.

But whereas you and I tend to see the world in terms of this contrast between East and West, between the market or mixed economies and the centrally planned economies, both of these units really contain only a small and very privileged minority of the total world population. The vast majority of the world's people constitute the so-called Third World. For them, it is not this East-West division that is the crucial or significant one. More important for them is the North-South division, the division that sets apart the great majority of humankind. For the Third World countries of Latin America, Asia, Africa, and the significant parts of the Middle East, the great preoccupations are quite different from the preoccupations that concern us and people in the Communist bloc. Their central preoccupations are not democracy, not how to protect the environment, conserve resources, improve civic amenities, or improve the general cultural life of the people. The central life experience of this vast population of the Third World is simple development—the struggle for a higher standard of living and all of the things associated with that struggle.

The Four Facets of Development

By development we mean a number of things. Perhaps foremost, economic development can be divided into two subcategories: (1) economic growth (an expansion of the total output of goods and services the economy is able to produce), and (2) structural change. As economies grow, as they produce more goods and services, they also tend to change in their structure, as we all know. I think, in fact, that this is a concept that should be pointed out with special clarity to students when discussing economic development. The countries of the world struggling for a higher standard of living really confront in economic terms two challenges: how to increase the total amount of growth but at the same time how to change their economic structure. By this latter we mean, how to modernize the agricultural system, how to shift from the use of labor to the use of capital, how to produce more in their industrial sector, how to establish modern factories. Along with a growth of output come changes in the composition of that output and in the way it gets produced.

The need for structural change means that economic growth is often very dislocating and upsetting. When changes in the economic structure are the very basis of the central life experience, people have to change occupations, change their work relationships, in many cases move from the country to the city, from rural to urban employment, and so forth. Along with economic growth and structural change, then, we have a third factor: social change. Thus development involves not only economic development but a great deal of accompanying social change, such as change in social class relationships and change in the structure of population. With improved health systems and the wider use of medicine there will be rapid falls in death rates, but usually combined with a continued high birth rate. The consequence of this will be a population explosion, with a very large part of the population being under, say, fifteen or sixteen years of age. Migration from the countryside to the cities by people in search of work coupled with rapid population growth results in serious urban problems such as shantytowns, because the cities cannot absorb migration and their own rapid population growth and at the same time provide adequate housing.

As we are reminded frequently in Latin America, economic development includes a fourth factor: political change. The social change that goes along with economic development normally produces a great deal of stress and conflict in the political system. This has to be managed somehow. As the people of the Third World confront the problem of economic development and social change, with all their tensions and stresses, their political systems have to find means of either suppressing conflict or accommodating and resolving it.

These four factors taken together are generally what we mean when we speak of development. Increasingly, in the quest for development, economic policy debates revolve around two principal issues. The first of these issues concerns the methods to be used for increasing the growth of the total output, especially how to raise the growth rate and keep it high enough above the population growth rate that eventually a higher standard of living can be attained. In a sense, this has traditionally been the major concern in modern times in discussions of economic development. Increasingly today, however, there is a second issue that comes to the forefront, one that is very much involved with the process of social change and political stress. This is the issue of the redistribution of income and wealth. In Latin America as elsewhere, people have come to perceive that economic growth in and of itself may not do very much to improve the lives of many in the absence of policies designed to broaden the benefits of growth and to involve more people as participants in the system. Throughout the Third World the central policy issue is becoming the pattern of economic distribution, the distribution of wealth and of income, in a socially more acceptable pattern.

If this is what preoccupies more of the people in the world, Latin America provides an especially advantageous window on this whole complex of processes. In other words, one of the things that we can do as we study Latin American economics in the classroom is to give our students a view of what is going on out there that affects most of humanity.

Latin America: A Good Model for Studying Third World Economies

Latin America is a convenient window for several reasons. First of all, it is for us the most geographically accessible portion of the Third World. With travel costs going up as they have, more people will have an opportunity to travel to Latin America—certainly to Mexico and perhaps to Central America—than to Asia or Africa. Thus, Latin America is a part of the Third World that we can talk about with some likelihood that our students may actually be able to go there and see how life goes on, to see what they have been studying about. Tremendous lessons can be learned from field trips to Mexico, if students are alerted beforehand to what to look for.

A second reason that Latin America is so important for us is that it is also linguistically accessible. I think that, practically speaking, no matter how much we wish that we as well as our students would learn more foreign languages, it is not very realistic to expect that any significant number of Americans will ever learn Hindi, Arabic, Chinese, Swahili, or other non-Western languages. However, since Spanish is the most widely taught foreign language in the United States, there is some hope, indeed, a rather realistic one, that our students can learn enough Spanish to relate reasonably effectively to people in Latin America, far more so than they could in Africa or Asia or elsewhere. Fairly readily, they can pick up magazines and newspapers and read what is being reported about economic life, social change, political stress and tension, and what the people in the region themselves are thinking about these matters. Consequently, it is important to remember to show our students that Latin America has these two singularly great advantages of accessibility. We cannot study about all the Third World and know it in equal detail, but we do have special advantages, particularly in Texas, in learning about that part of it that lies just beyond our southern border.

This is also, I think, an advantageous way to learn about the Third World because Latin America is that part of the Third World that has historically interacted most closely with the United States. Economically, commercially, culturally, and through political ties such as the Monroe Doctrine and the OAS, Latin America is the part of the Third World that is really the most meaningful for our students. It affects our daily lives and we routinely interact with it.

Finally, if the study of Latin American economic development is valuable because it provides insight into the conditions of the life of people in other sets of circumstances, it is also important because it can probably lead students to understand more about their own economy, by way of contrast. Many of us, not only students, tend to take a lot about our society and our economic system for granted, simply because it is all around us. We read about it, but we don't really think explicitly about it. Very likely, then, the net result of exposing students to a very different kind of economic system is that it will sensitize them to their own economic system. They will become more aware of what is going on in U.S. economic experience and U.S. economic organization because of the contrast. Moreover, some students will be able, in studying Latin America, to gain a more solid understanding of the problems of different parts of the United States, including parts of Texas. Economic development, the struggle for a higher standard of living, is not, of course, something unknown in the United States. We, too, have our poorer regions, regions that have fewer resources, lower incomes, and problems with nutrition and health. As these conditions are to some extent shared with Latin America, in looking at Latin America students may learn not only about our own economic system but about some of the special problems that affect the backward areas of South Texas and similar areas elsewhere.

Latin America in Relation to the Rest of the Third World

It is important at the outset to recognize the fact that Latin America is not exactly like all the other regions of the Third World, an area that includes a great many countries and a great many different cultures. Latin America is relatively better off, on the whole, than most other parts of the Third World. It is certainly better off than Africa in terms of the average level of living, per capita income, illiteracy indicators, industrialization, and the like—and far better off than Asia. It is a region that has already experienced the kinds of development problems that will still confront Asia and Africa in the future. In this sense, to look at the Latin American experience is to some extent to be able to forecast what might happen to some of the other regions of the world. At the same time, Latin America itself is a tremendously diverse region, as you are well aware.

It includes regions that are rural and preindustrial and others that are modern in every sense. In some areas in Latin America there are regions that are just about as poor as anything one would find elsewhere in the Third World. Certainly, the conditions of life in the interior of Northeastern Brazil, in Haiti, in Bolivia, in Paraguay, to mention only a few, begin to approximate what one would find in parts of Asia and Africa: regions of poverty, very few resources, very little experience involving complex economic organization, and so forth. From a pedagogical point of view, these regions provide a convenient laboratory. There we can find the modern and relatively advanced coexisting with the extremely underdeveloped and impoverished. Even though it isn't typical of the Third World in every single respect, it does have enough in common with it to be an especially instructive region to look at.

Perceptions of the International System

I said at the beginning that the world looks very different from the Third World perspective than it does from the vantage point of the so-called First (Western) or Second (Communist bloc) World. Let us take a look, then, at these contrasting perceptions of the international structure. What does it mean that the whole economic system looks so different from the Third World perspective? As we go into this, we shall begin to see why we encounter such contrasting perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs, and even find conflicts developing within the Western Hemisphere.

All of us, with the best intentions, like to stress the Good Neighbor Policy, the positive linkages that have developed among the peoples of the Western Hemisphere. We undeniably have a lot in common: political ideals, cultural ideals, and religious ideals. We are part of the same Western culture. Yet in spite of this, in spite of such efforts as the Good Neighbor Policy, the Pan American Union, the OAS, and all the inter-American treaties, the sad fact remains that there is a great deal of conflict in the Western Hemisphere between the North and the South, between Anglo-America on the one hand and Latin America on the other. This conflict stems in no small degree from the fact that Latin America is part of the Third World and tends to see things very differently from the way that we see them.

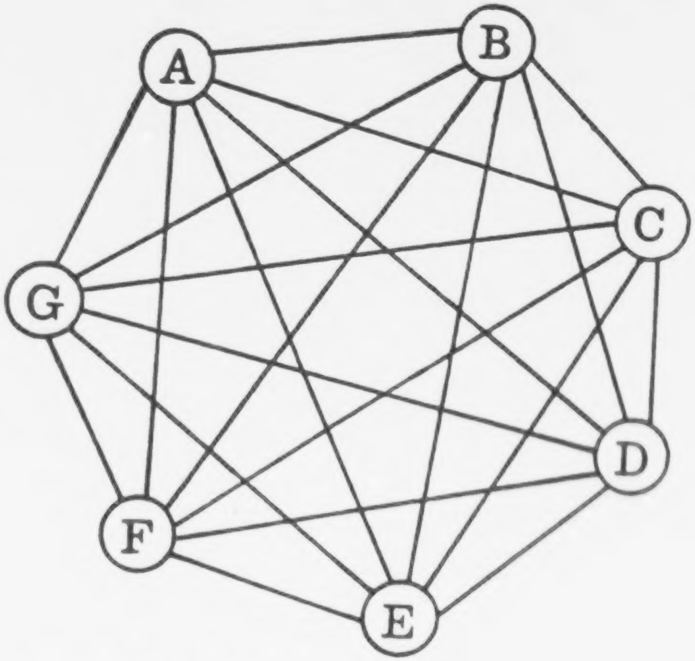
To introduce the student to this major point, our objective should be to try to develop and present a cross-sectional view of the Latin American economies and describe how they function within the context of an international economic system, and particularly to show where the conflictive relationships and the contradictions in this international system come from. Figure 1 illustrates the way that we perceive the working of the economic system, internationally speaking.

As this figure illustrates, we tend to see the world in terms of interdependent national economies that are related to each other, economically speaking, through four main ways:

1. The economic systems interact through the flows of goods and services; exporting and importing take place and relate each economic system to all the others.
2. A second linkage that has been very important historically consists of the flows of capital investment from one economy to another. The richer economies, which have more capital to invest, which have higher incomes and therefore a possibility of greater savings, have invested a portion of their capital in those economies that have smaller amounts of capital and lower incomes. This transfer boosts the latter's productivity, so that eventually the investment may be amortized and repaid. Thus, a second capital flow among these national economic systems takes place as interest and dividends are paid on the transferred capital and as the investment itself is repaid.
3. At various times—though not too frequently in world history, all things considered—there has been yet another flow, a flow that has been historically important in linking Europe and the Americas. To some extent it is important here in Texas even today. This is the flow of labor. Thus, another linkage from time to time has been the movement of people from one economy to another, from economies with insufficient land and with popula-

FIGURE 1

Prevailing U.S. Perception of the Structure of the World Economy



Notes on diagram:

1. Circles represent the individual national economies
2. Lines represent trade flows and movements of investment capital, etc.

The basic concept is that each system specializes in those activities in which it is, comparatively, more efficient and that all countries benefit mutually from this global division of labor by exchanging goods and services with one another in world trade. Mutual benefit, interdependence, and advantageous specialization are key notions in this world view.

tion pressure to economies where land and other resources (and job opportunities) are relatively more abundant. Even though we no longer have the massive migration of labor that once came across the Atlantic, there are still important flows of specialized and skilled labor, as engineers, scientists, agronomists, and others move from country to country in this intricate complex of relationships.

4. Finally, no less important is the flow from country to country of such things as economic organizations (e.g., the idea of establishing corporations to combine resources for larger business dealings, or setting up cooperatives for achieving certain ends), of economic know-how (e.g., techniques such as bookkeeping, insurance, and new ways of processing materials), and finally, science and technology.

So we have, then, these four kinds of linkages: (1) of goods and services; (2) of capital investment; (3) of labor; and (4) of economic organization, know-how, science, and technology. In the United States, we tend to organize our thinking around these linkages. We see the international systems as consisting of different national economies, each of which tends to be relatively more efficient in producing some things than other things for a variety of reasons. Each country tends to specialize in that which it can do best, and it trades with the other countries for what they can do best. With specialization along the lines of efficiency, each country benefits mutually and we all are better off because of international economic linkages than we would be otherwise. Mutual benefits, interdependence, and advantageous specialization are the key notions in this particular worldview.

Figure 1 presents a very different kind of model, or paradigm, representing the view that prevails in Latin America of the world economic system. This figure makes plain the major features of the way the Latin Americans and, to a great extent, most of the Third World people look at the international system. They tend to think of two major participants, or categories of participants, in the world economic system. One consists of the so-called center, which includes the First and Second World countries that I mentioned at the beginning, that is, the industrialized countries, the countries of the North Atlantic and North Pacific, all of which are relatively affluent. The other category of participants includes the so-called periphery, the less-developed, the less-prosperous, the less-industrialized, and the less-urbanized portions of the world. Instead of all the economies being interdependent and trading various kinds of things back and forth to mutual advantage, the tendency in Latin America is to see the system in terms of dependency, not interdependency. They point out, not without some basis in very real fact, that Latin America doesn't really interact much, say, with the Middle East, with Asia, or with Africa. And the same is true of each of the other less-developed regions of the world. Instead of interacting among themselves as well as with the industrial countries, the major economic and commercial ties relate each of these world regions separately to the countries of the industrial center. And the relationship that binds each of these peripheral countries to the industrial center is essentially a dependency relationship. The basic concept, then, is that all economic systems are not equal, nor do they derive equal benefits from participating in the world system.

From this standpoint, the industrial core or center countries are the powerful economic nations, the sources of industrial capital for overseas markets, and the suppliers of technique, science, and know-how to the more backward national economies. The center economies are said to derive the dominant advantages from world trade and to control the terms on which each of the peripheral regions relates to the global economy. Certainly, it is the massive spending power of the industrial countries that dominates the world market, determining in large measure how the world's resources are to be used. The so-called peripheral economic regions, in turn, do not relate much to each other; they are chiefly influenced by their relations with the powerful national economies of the industrial core, and they are usually divided and segmented, internally speaking. The keynotes of this worldview are inequality in a whole variety of ways: income, economic capabilities, and know-how. Dependency means, among other things, that Latin America is dependent on the industrial core or "center" for investment of capital, for science and know-how, for markets for its exports, and for supplies of its imports. Neocolonialism and conflict prevail. Even where countries have, as they have in Latin America, achieved political independence, they have remained economically dependent for a long time and subject to the economic influence of the powerful. Old-fashioned colonialism, based on political control, has increasingly been supplanted by this neocolonial system of economic control.

As shown in figure 2, certain shaded segments also capture an idea that we shall get into in more detail in a moment, namely, that the economies of the periphery countries are internally divided in a very significant way. Only part of them—sometimes called "enclaves"—readily relate to the world economies, to the modern factories, shipping lines, airlines, and so on. Much of the rest of the economies in each of these areas remains more or less on the sidelines, operating much the way it did before this modern enclave sector existed.

We have, then, sharply contrasting views of the international economic structure. We may live in the same world, but it looks very different, depending on where you're standing. Whereas we tend to see it in terms of figure 1, Latin America sees it in terms of figure 2. Maybe Latin Americans see it this way more than Africans and Asians because Latin Americans, being more sophisticated on the whole, are able to express and develop ideas like that represented in figure 2, ideas that later can get adopted and expressed in Asia and Africa and other places. Latin Americans have been the leaders and developers of this alternative view of the world, one that they say is a much more realistic view of the scene than is ours, at least from their point of view.

Internal Organization of Latin American Economic Life

Next I'd like to turn to the internal structure of the Latin American economies. To some extent—a very significant extent, in fact—the particular kind of structural relationships we saw when we looked at the Latin American view of the world stem from how these economies are internally organized. Why are they on the periphery rather than in the center? Why are they dependent economies? Why do they believe themselves to be subject to neocolonialism? Why do they see themselves in conflict with the center countries, or at least their interests so divergent at times? Why are they not related to the world system the way we, or Belgium or Switzerland or Norway, might be related to it?

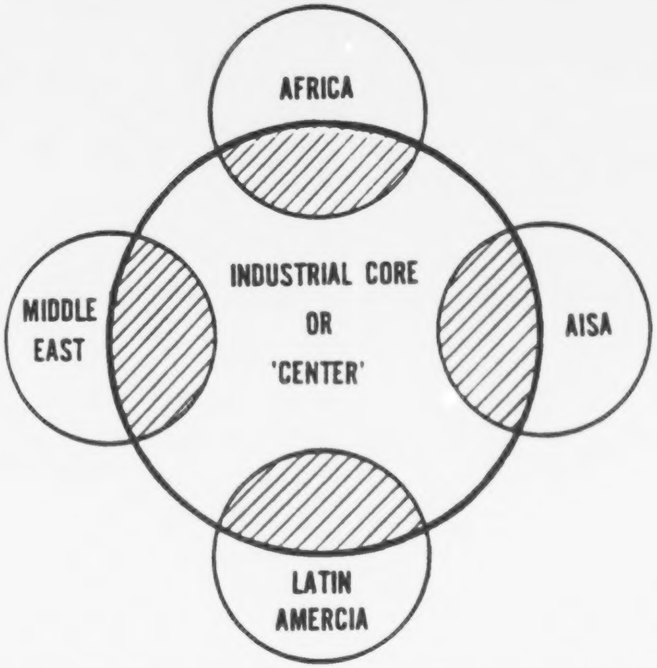
I think the reason is that we are dealing with a different kind of internal structure, not the kind of internal structure that we are accustomed to in our economic system. If we examine our perception of our own economic system, you will see that we tend to view it the same way that we think of the international economic system. We tend, in other words, to look at our national economic system as an integrated unit, just as we see the international economy as a larger scheme of integration. Our national economies are integrated by various kinds of interrelated markets: labor markets, capital markets, markets for commodities for national resources, goods and services, the information markets, and the like. Acting in concert, these markets weld our national economic system into a more or less smoothly functioning unit. Admittedly, we have our recessions and inflations from time to time. But basically what happens in each part of our national economy pretty much depends on what happens in another part of the economic system. Thus, we are dealing with integrated economies, true national economic units.

Development economics in the post–World War II period, however, became increasingly aware that outside the North Atlantic industrial community and Japan, national economies were not generally as well integrated as we are accustomed to their being; they do not hold together so effectively on the basis of all these market mechanisms. The realization became increasingly unavoidable that different parts of the geographical units called national economies in other parts of the world, in the Third World especially, are in fact organized by somewhat different sets of relationships. To go back to our picture of the Third World industrial center and the peripheral countries (figure 2), the revelation came that the unshaded portion of the national economies in Latin America or in the less-developed world as a whole tend to be organized very differently from the shaded portions. Different relationships and different structures prevail in these two portions of the economic system. And with this insight, there came into popularity the concept of economic dualism. Thus, in talking about Latin America, Africa, or Asia, we are talking about economic systems that are dual economic systems. Two-sector models were developed for analytical convenience. The distinction was generally made between (a) a modern sector, the sector that is affected by worldwide trends in interacting with exports and imports and foreign investment, the sector with modern economic organization, and (b) the traditional sector, which is to a large extent premodern, preindustrial, and preurban. Sometimes the two-sector model is stated in terms of the commercial sector, the sector that produces goods and services on the market, and a traditional sector that has been looked at as a subsistence sector. In the latter, much is produced on the farm for the consumption of the farm family, and people tend to produce their own clothing, cooking pots, simple tools, implements, and the like.

While the dual economy model has a lot to recommend it, I'd like to suggest that for our purposes, we might think of a sort of three-sector model (portrayed in figure 3). The addition of a third sector to our model makes for increased insight into what goes on in the typical Latin American economy. The top level of these three layers of economic structure we might think of as the modern economy, the modern industrial sector, in terms of the system of production. In contrast, the middle level includes what we call here the *criollo* sector. This is a local sector that is not indigenous in origin and in which the forms of economic organization are certainly European in origin, although not as highly developed as the modern sector of the economic system. At the bottom of the figure is a layer representing the remnants of the production systems that existed in the Americas prior to the arrival of the Europeans. The three sectors should not be thought of as entirely separated from each other, for in truth there is some degree

FIGURE 2

Prevailing Latin American Perception of the Structure of the World Economy



Notes on diagram:

1. The Industrial Core or 'Center' represents the advanced industrial economies -- U.S., Japan, Canada, Europe (including the USSR).
2. The other world regions are collectively called the 'periphery.'
3. The shaded segments are enclaves: i.e., those portions of the 'peripheral' economies which intersect with the 'Center.'

The basic concepts are that not all economic systems are equal and that they do not derive equal benefits from participating in the world economic systems. The so-called peripheral economic regions do not relate much to each other, are chiefly influenced by their relations with the powerful national economies of the industrial core, and are even (usually) internally divided or segmented (see **Figure 3**). Key notions in this world view are inequality, dependency, neo-colonialism, and conflict.

of interpenetration between them, some interaction occurring among them at all times.

Let us examine some of the contrasts among the three sectors: (1) the modern economic sector, (2) the *criollo* sector, and (3) the modified indigenous sector, the last of these being the subsistence or traditional sector.

The Modern Sector

In Mexico and elsewhere the modern sector includes branch plants of some of the major U. S., European, and Japanese corporations. To some extent, these companies may be engaged in export production, as they were in the case of the copper mines of Chile until they were nationalized or the petroleum companies of Venezuela until they too were nationalized. In many cases in the last forty or fifty years, however, these modern multinational enterprises have been set up to serve the local market, producing steel, automobiles, glassware, chemicals, and a whole range of products for, say, the Mexican or Brazilian market. We tend to find that these large modern corporations use relatively modern techniques in their productions, employing quite a bit of machinery and equipment of the latest type.

In the modern sector, one also finds the national capitalist firms, that is, large modern corporations, factories, insurance companies, banks, and the like, owned by Mexican investors, Brazilian investors, or Venezuelan investors, and so on, depending on the country. Most of these are also using the latest techniques, equipment, machinery, and product designs to produce both for export and for the local market. They too employ relatively large amounts of capital, modern management accounting techniques, and modern methods of engineering science. You will want to call your students' attention to the fact that a very important part of the modern sector in most of the countries consists also of what is often called the parastatal firms. These are the firms or large corporate enterprises that are owned and operated by Latin American governments. Our own national government does not operate very many production enterprises. To be sure, we have the TVA, the LCRA, and a few other public enterprises. But in Latin America, far more than here, the governments of the region have taken major responsibility for promoting the establishment of large modern companies. A commonality of most of the Third World, in fact, is that the government operates a great many of the modern enterprises. In Venezuela the government operates major steel mills and the major petroleum companies. In Brazil, the major steel mills are operated by the government, and the petroleum company there has been operated by the government for a considerable number of years. The large electric power companies in those countries, as well as elsewhere in Latin America, also tend to be operated by the government, as are the banks, petrochemical plants, railway companies, commercial airlines, and still other types of businesses. Moreover, the fact that more of the economy is organized by the government doesn't have much to do with the political ideology. We find important government-owned companies in countries that have conservative governments as well as in countries with liberal governments; in countries with civilian governments and ones with military governments. The government does this not because it in most cases is committed to socialism—that really doesn't have much to do with it—but because it identifies development with these large corporations and feels that the government has to support them, to establish them, to encourage their growth to help modernize the system.

So much, then, for the modern economic sector, the sector that in Mexico you will tend to find concentrated in Monterrey, Mexico City and the Federal District, and Guadalajara, with additional factories here and there in a few other places.

The *Criollo* Sector

Next there is the rather large sector that we call the *criollo* sector, which emerged during the colonial and nineteenth-century experience in Latin America and which remains a very important part of the economic picture in many countries. In this sector we are talking about the small factory and shops, the smaller mines, the semicommercial farms, and haciendas. These are the enterprises that tend to be distinctly less modern in their management techniques and organization. They may not be corporations, but operate as family enterprises. They usually tend to be much smaller in scale, except for the large haciendas. They use much less machinery and equipment and what they use is ordinarily of the old-fashioned sort. They tend to rely more on labor than on capital, but not the highly skilled, technical type of labor you find in the modern sector. This *criollo* mode of production is that which prevails in much of Latin America, particularly in the provincial regions outside the major centers. Most countries have some large mines, large factories, large banks, and so forth, but much of the economy is usually made of these smaller, less technically advanced, less modern enterprises.

Modified Indigenous Sector

Finally, we have the remnants of the pre-European types of economic organization. You can find this even

FIGURE 3

Prevailing Perception in Latin America of the Fragmented National Economic Structures of One Region (Internal Colonialism and 'Dualism' Ideas)

Economic Activity

		PRODUCTION	DISTRIBUTION	CONSUMPTION
SEGMENTED' 'SECTORS' OR SUBSYSTEMS	I. MODERN ECONOMY SECTOR	Multinational capitalist firms Export oriented Locally oriented 'Parastatal' firms Export oriented Locally oriented National capitalist firms Export oriented Locally oriented	Exporting and Importing firms. Supermarkets and other elements of modern marketing systems.	Wide range of goods and services (including imports), for both consumers goods and western producers.
	II. 'CRIOLLO' SECTOR	Small factories, mines, and semi-commercial farms, haciendas.	Small shops, provincial and rural marketing networks, periodic fairs or markets.	"Old fashioned" goods and services of a limited variety, mainly for consumers but some simple machinery. Modest purchasing power.
	III. MODIFIED INDIGENOUS SECTOR	Semi-subistence agriculture. Customary crafts and services	Periodic market networks. Consumption of home-produced items.	Very limited range of goods and services, very few capital goods. Very limited purchasing power.

in Mexico, but to a greater extent it is prominent in some other countries. In regions where there was a large pre-Columbian population, the indigenous population continued to follow pretty much the way of life it had before the Spaniards came. It certainly picked up many of the Spanish techniques of agriculture and crafts, but much of what it had been doing before Columbus arrived continued to be practiced. The Indian markets, the craftsmen, the small farmers who with a digging stick farm their *milpas* on the mountainside—here we find, looking at the techniques of production, very simple economic organization, not large-scale corporations, not even the middle-sized firms of the *criollo* sector. Furthermore, the small farms rely on techniques that haven't changed very much for several hundred years, and not very much capital equipment is involved.

The interesting thing about Latin America is that so much is like a museum. You can go and actually see, even in Mexico, our next-door neighbor, an example of all of these forms of economic organization, depending on the part of the country you go to. To be sure, the countries do differ. In Argentina, for example, you don't have all three sectors, at least not on any significant scale. There is practically no indigenous sector and the modern sector is greater than the *criollo* sector in relative importance. In Costa Rica, another place where there isn't a significant indigenous sector, the *criollo* sector is probably of greater relative importance than the modern sector. In Haiti there is almost no modern sector at all, and the *criollo* sector is probably smaller than the subsistence sector. In Peru, one of the most interesting Latin American cases, there are good examples of all three sectors. Ecuador, Bolivia, and Guatemala are other countries offering clear examples of all three sectors. The mix of sectors differs from country to country, and this should be pointed out. Thus, you can use this classification to sort out the differences in the mix of the different portions of the economy.

To turn from the production column to the distribution column in figure 3, one can point out that this is also an important part of economic organization. Here you also have some very good illustrative material to point to. In Mexico as well as in other countries you can mention the large exporting and importing firms that use teletype services and all the other modern means of communication to keep in touch with markets all over the world. Firms, major ports, banks, and transport companies, including branches of important international firms, are in daily touch with the world market and use very much the same business methods that we use. In the top layer you've got the supermarket, the major shopping center, Sears—in short, all the local elements in the modern distribution network. Of this you find elements in almost every country, certainly in parts of Mexico City, São Paulo, Buenos Aires, and many of the other large modern cities in Latin America. These have almost everything your students would be accustomed to finding daily in their own shopping rounds.

But there is also another distribution sector in most of Latin America that consists of the small shops, the rural marketing networks, and the periodic fairs that take place throughout the countryside, in the small towns and villages. Many goods still get transferred eventually from producer to consumer in just this sort of old-fashioned marketing network. In many places in Latin America you'll find shops resembling the general store of some generations ago here: small stores, "Mom and Pop" stores, as we sometimes call them, with little use of modern displays, probably not very good inventory policies, and conditions for storage that leave a lot to be desired. This distribution system tends to be small scale and made up of many small firms, scattered and not very well managed in the modern sense and with very high costs of distribution. The cost of marketing, of moving goods from the producers to the consumers, in this sector is commonly fairly high because of the low efficiency of this part of the economy.

Finally we come to those sections of the distribution system of most interest to tourists: the Indian market, where you find vendors wandering along the streets or setting up their displays and selling their wares on the sidewalks and in the plazas. The goods sold are handmade, in backyards, home workshops, and the like.

Thus it is that you can come across very visible displays of the different types of market networks that parallel the different types of production systems you find in these countries. Again, keep in mind that these are not always totally separate and distinct. There is a lot of interaction between these areas. I remember once going to a native market in the highland regions of Guatemala and buying, in the pottery section, a very attractive little round clay vessel that I thought was not only well designed, with a nice-looking shape, but also quite expressive of the handicraft technique of the Indians of that part of Guatemala. I bought it and was very proud of it as typifying the wares of a remote village, since I bought it right off the sidewalk, so to speak, from an Indian vendor. After I got home I discovered, while examining it more closely, that there was an interesting design apparently etched into it: the impression of the old Ford V-8 hubcap that had been used to model the vessel! It would be hard to find clearer proof that the different sectors are not entirely isolated from one another!

Let us look finally at what the three-sector model in figure 3 implies for consumption, a matter that gets us close to the question of culture. What are the cultural artifacts people use in each of these three sectors? In our modern sector we find a wide range of goals and both consumer and producer services: automobiles, life insurance, luxury apartments, house insurance, Caterpillar tractors, marketing services, blenders, machine tools, fast foods, nylon, napalm, and all the rest—very nearly everything one could find in the United States. And, of course, those who live and work in the modern sector, the high-productivity sector in each country, tend to be those who are able to consume these products; they consume, in fact, the majority of the products in the economic system. Income tends to be highly concentrated, with the result that the great bulk of the national income is earned by people working in this sector—not only the owners and managers, but also the skilled laborers. Urban areas, factories, modern enterprises of all sorts earn the large bulk of the national income, and those who work in these institutions consume a relatively wide range of goods and services, pretty much the same range of goods and services that we might consume in this country.

In the *criollo* sector, we have old-fashioned goods and services of a more limited variety, mainly consumer goods, but some simple and somewhat antique machinery. Included here are the service-intensive activities in many cases, such as domestic servants and old-fashioned stores in which service is provided by an astonishingly large number of semiemployed lackeys. Since the people who work in this part of the economy have much lower productivity than those in the modern sector, their income is much lower on the average. Buying their goods through a more expensive distribution system, they really have a much more limited range of goods to consume than do those who make their livelihood in the modern sector. In the *criollo* sector, people, for the most part, live on a much more modest scale.

Last, we come to the modified traditional sector, where productivity and incomes are very low, where an extremely limited range of goods and services is produced, and where purchasing power is exceedingly limited. A simple and inadequate diet that varies hardly at all from year to year, practically no medical services, the most humble housing, and clothing that is (at best) only sufficient to provide minimal protection against the elements—these make up the consumption basket of those who live in the lowest layer of the economic system.

Pedagogical Hints

In talking about the Latin American countries, I have shied away from facts and figures about population and income levels, things like that. [See Appendix for statistical studies.] In a rapidly changing area like Latin America this type of information becomes outdated very quickly, and it's probably best just to let students know where they can go to find it. There is little value, aside from giving students some general approximations of size, in mentioning facts and figures that will soon be obsolete—and not very interesting before they are. Let me suggest that they glance through something like the annual publication of the Inter-American Development Bank called *Economic and Social Progress in Latin America*.

Besides this, there are a few more things to mention about what we have been covering before we go on. One is that this whole area of discussion lends itself beautifully to visual aids. You can easily find pictures in magazines and books and slides that people take on trips to illustrate every segment of economic activity that we have discussed. Films such as *Double Day*, dealing with women in the work force in Latin America, illustrate quite well the whole range of economic sectors. I might add that I think that you will probably find the picture *Double Day* particularly useful for educational purposes because it goes in such depth into the role of women. And you'll see that the role of women in the labor force differs from sector to sector. For all its conservative tradition, Latin America has been an area very much involved in economic change in almost every sector. For example, although women historically have had a major role to play in the agricultural production of the subsistence sector, they have also been active as shopkeepers and servants in the *criollo* sector and you will find in the modern sector women playing very important professional roles as doctors, lawyers, and architects.

There are a number of conceptual points that you may want to bring out in discussions of the economic structure of Latin America. They illustrate basic economic concepts. In the different levels of our last figure, you might want to point out to your students the types of goods that are involved in the different sectors of the economy. In the modified-indigenous sector, most of the goods and services are consumer goods and services, even though there is not a great variety. Producer goods and services are normally limited and primitive here. Thus, one distinction that high school students might like to think about in terms of economics is the difference between consumer goods and producer goods (that is, equipment, machinery, and services used to make other goods and services). This is a basic conceptual distinction. The difference between the traditional and the modern sector is precisely in this mix, among other things. As you move toward the modern sector, producer goods and services become increasingly important as part of the total number of goods and services used. The different mix between consumer goods and producer goods reflects the fact that the modern sector uses a lot of producer goods or investment goods.

Another concept you might want to introduce is the concept of infrastructure. This is a topic about which you hear a great deal in Latin America and the developing countries generally. By infrastructure we mean those basic industries and activities that support the productivity of all the others, for example, the electric power industry, the transportation industry, banking, basic commercial and financial services, health, and education. The infrastructure or the supportive foundation enhances or improves production activities. The traditional sector of the economy, among other things, is distinguished by the fact that it gets along with very little in the way of infrastructure. People and animals provide the transportation, and the power is provided by animals or sometimes by burning wood. As you move to the upper layers in our diagram, you move into a portion of the economy that depends much more heavily on the massive doses of infrastructure. This fact illustrates another kind of basic point about economic development.

One final set of observations on the internal structure is that if you look at Latin America today, you find that although a great deal of headway has been made in the twentieth century, in the nineteenth there was much more limited economic development. Historically, very few countries have been able to promote a truly *national* development, to build a truly national economic system. It is clear that in most countries what we have is not national development—in the sense that policies have been able to increase per capita productivity across the board—but rather segmental development. Particular segments of the economic structure of the national territory have benefited, but others have been left behind. It has been an exceedingly difficult task to try to translate segmental development into something that is more comprehensive, benefiting the whole population. This, in fact, brings us to a *curious paradox* in the nature of development in Latin America. As development has occurred in Latin America, development of this segmental sort, very interesting political and social processes have been set in motion. What has happened is that the process of development has tended to generate a whole range of conflicts and contradictions within Latin American society. These conflicts basically take the form of a struggle for control over scarce resources. Thus, while the region has experienced segmental development on the one hand, more and more people have been left aside, with frustrated expectations. As a result, there is increased competition and conflict over the available scarce resources. The segmental development that has occurred has simply strengthened certain groups in trying to get a larger share of the economic pie while placing others at a greater disadvantage. As an expression of these internal contradictions in Latin America, we find clashes occurring among all sorts of sectoral interest groups in the region. The industrial sector will argue that it needs more of the available resources, for electric power, for urban expansion, for financing the important machinery, and so on. But at the same time the agricultural sector claims that it needs more of the available resources to put in farm-to-market roads, rural electrification, and rural health systems. Similar competition occurs in the area of credit.

The contradictions and conflicts we have mentioned come to the forefront in the allocation of educational facilities—where to put these educational facilities. The urban areas are complaining that they have increasing needs for different skills. To train labor more highly, the country has got to plow more resources into the urban industrial sector's education, particularly if the countries are going to develop the research capabilities they need. But at the same time, the agricultural sector says no, that it really needs more schools and vocational institutes in the countryside. Alongside these, there are clashes between essentially different social and economic classes in the population, between the privileged and the semiprivileged, on the one hand, and the oppressed and exploited, on the other. One of the paradoxical effects of much of Latin American development has been to strengthen the number and political influence of the former at the expense of the latter. In addition, of course, the clashes that really get a lot of publicity are those between national investors and foreign investors. The very success of countries in developing national business communities has generated more local people who would like to control the investment opportunities that foreign enterprise used to take up; thus the very process of economic growth has tended to promote conflict between those representing national business interests and foreign investors. What economic development has done, then, especially the segmental type of economic development, has been to strengthen the role of particular interest groups in the economic arena and to intensify clashes among regions, interests, and classes.

This brings us to a major paradox of development in Latin America and many parts of the Third World, namely, that successful segmental development has in many cases operated to frustrate national development. It has put, one might say, too many people with too much power in line ahead of the poor, with the result that the government and the private sector both tend to respond mainly to the privileged (but growing) part of the population, which is centered in the modern sector and in the cities. Left farther and farther behind are the poor, especially the rural poor. As the Latin American experience makes plain, conflict and struggle—far from being abnormal—are part and parcel of the process of development and social change. Much of our own history has been interpreted in such a way as to conceal this aspect, but in looking at Latin America, students can begin to see how each social/economic system builds up the internal tensions and stresses, sometimes known as contradictions, which sooner or later produce change. The point has, of course, a more general application, but for many students it may be more readily understood in the historical context of societies other than their own.

Geography Institutions and Latin American Development

Let us turn to a brief look at some sources of Latin American economic problems. Where does the fragmentation of Latin American economic systems come from? On this I'm going to say relatively little because you find a very good explanation of this in the KEY IDEAS section. Fundamentally, we may say that the roots of the economic problems have two different sources. On the one hand, we have those that are problems of *geography*. The part of the KEY IDEAS section that touches on the physical environment offers a great many opportunities to indicate the important role that geography has had. Geography in Latin America makes agriculture very difficult, as large areas are taken out of agricultural use: the section covered by mountains, jungles, and deserts, or those too remotely situated. The barriers created by the mountains and the jungles for transportation have also had a tremendous negative impact on Latin American development possibilities. Here you could contrast the experience of Latin America very interestingly with the historical experience of Europe and the United States. If you look at the geography of Western Europe and of the United States, two of the more favored regions of the world, you can see how much more conducive our geography has been to national development than it has been in the case of Latin America. In the European case and the U.S. case, we've had important river systems providing cheap transportation that went right into the heart of the most productive regions. Further, these provided economical transportation at a time when our economic system could not afford to invest very much in building transportation systems. By contrast, most of Latin America has not had important river transport systems and has had to use extraordinarily expensive overland transport systems, expensive to construct and very expensive to maintain. Thus, geography has certainly been an important source of difficulty. It has operated to fragment the region, to isolate countries, to give some countries an advantage over other countries, to keep people remotely situated cut off from the cultural and educational mainstream, and to produce similar negative consequences.

The other category of problem that is covered in the KEYS IDEAS section on the economic system, which should be looked in conjunction with the section on the physical environment, is the institutional problems. These problems stem basically from social-economic organization and culture. Here you can illustrate the impact of cultural dualism. For example, what does it matter to an economic system today that 30 percent of the population doesn't speak the language, can't read and write, and doesn't really participate in the national market because they lack purchasing power? Cultural dualism and its implications, then, could be developed as one of the institutional kinds of economic problem. What about the concentration of economic power in Latin America? What kind of a problem does this create in economic development? In other words, if a few people have a great deal of purchasing power, what difference does this make for economic development as compared with the pattern in which the purchasing power tends to be much more evenly distributed? In the first case, we have a small market for a great variety of things; those that have the bulk of the purchasing power want a great many things, the kinds of things that you and I consume—services, durable goods, nondurable consumer goods, foreign travel, and so on. But there is not a broad market demand for any of these items, forestalling the advantages of mass production. In contrast, where income is more broadly distributed you can build up a relatively large market demand for a limited range of goods. While in the first case, it is hard to set an economic size of factory to supply the wide range of goods, the second case provides a national market sufficiently large to make it justifiable to set up large factories on an economic scale.

You can also look at another institutional obstacle besides the concentration of income and wealth. What, for instance, are the implications of the failure to invest in human resources? What does it mean when most of your human resources are not developed, when most of the people haven't access to the educational structure to develop their skills, to become better farmers, to become engineers or businessmen, or professional people, or more effective civil servants? In Latin America one finds an institutional structure that tends to cut off a great portion of the population in many countries from access to the opportunities to develop their skills and talents. This is something that varies. Argentina is a country, like Costa Rica or Uruguay, in which most people have some access to the educational system. In contrast, in Mexico, where great efforts have been made over the years to eradicate illiteracy but where population growth has been high, there has been great difficulty in bringing education to people. There are probably almost as many illiterates now as there were when the Mexican Revolution began, perhaps more, not proportionately, of course, but in absolute numbers.

The implications of rapid population growth can also be discussed under the heading of institutional problems. What does it matter when you have rapid population growth? What does it matter that a nation has a population structure in which 50 percent of all its population is fifteen or under, where most of the population, in other words, is not in the active labor force? The examples can be multiplied. There is a whole range of institutional problems that you can talk about in illustrating the problems of economic growth.

Finally, I think that in this section there is a very good opportunity to deal with nonproblems, if you like: the clichés that very often get used to explain problems of Latin American development but that actually explain very little. If we look to the older literature on problems of economic development in Latin America, we find a lot of misinformation. Here's an opportunity to deal with a lot of that misinformation. Why is Latin America as poor as it is? Why is it having the problems it's facing? What are the common explanations you hear about this? One common response holds that militarism is too common to Latin America. They spend too much on the military, on war, things like that. But invite your students to take a realistic look at the situation. The actual amount of the national budget that most Latin Americans have to spend on the military is less than it is in most industrial countries. For that matter, Latin America, for all of its militarism, can't hold a candle to Europe when it comes to wars, combat, massive devastation. The same holds true for the United States, the Soviet Union, and Japan. So if we look at the whole question of the roots of economic backwardness, the simplistic explanation of militarism really doesn't seem to get us very far.

Another explanation sometimes given is that Latin America has been too fond of conspicuous consumption. The problem is said to be that they have spent too much on churches, mansions, and other supposed luxuries. Yet, looking at things realistically, we may ask which of the countries really compares with what has been spent lavishly in Europe or the United States, with the multiple mansions and estates of the Vanderbilts, the Windsors, the Rothschilds, the Bourbons, the Rockefellers, and others. Besides, the most elaborate Latin American homes are really not all that fancy when it comes to conspicuous consumption. It would really be very difficult to argue that Latin America has even approached Europe or the United States in this area of unproductive spending.

Conclusion

What we find today in Latin America is that various countries are trying to find different answers to their economic difficulty. As a result, Latin America presents a kind of laboratory for studying the problems of economic backwardness and poverty and the policies for dealing with them. One country, for example, has sought its solutions through communism. So here we have one pattern of attempted answers. If you want students to know something about communism, there is a case study, as it were, right next door. Other countries have adopted a more capitalistic approach to development. Colombia is a case in point, a country in which major reliance is placed on the private sector. There is a whole range of countries in between; Latin America is, in fact, mainly made up of this in-between category, the so-called third-position countries, a popular theme in Latin America for many years now. Jokingly, this *ni comunismo ni capitalismo* approach has been referred to as the "ni-ni" model of development, but we need to take seriously the many Latin American efforts to avoid the evils of both capitalism and communism in an attempt to find another answer for the region's problems.

THE ECONOMIC CRISIS OF THE 1980S IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE SEARCH FOR NEW DEVELOPMENT MODELS

Michael E. Conroy

The 1980s have been bewildering, frightening, and demoralizing for the Latin American economies and for government officials charged with creating policies to further economic growth and development. Many Latin Americans and Latin America specialists agree that much of the origin of the crisis was clearly outside of the control of Latin America and, in very real ways, not their fault. It is not surprising, under these circumstances, that Latin Americans have been searching, harder than ever, for new ways to bring a modicum of economic growth, stability, employment, and social services to their nations. This search is leading in new directions, away from the older and more traditional "models" of development. The results of that search may be critical to the future of U.S.–Latin American relations.

The economic crisis of the 1980s also threatened the fragile newly elected and relatively more democratic governments. Some Latin Americans even began to ask whether democracy was incompatible with rapid growth and development under the international economic conditions they faced.

This brief essay explores the magnitude and the causes of the economic crisis of the 1980s in Latin America, discusses the implications of that crisis for the search for new strategies for economic development, and closes by suggesting approaches that the United States could take to facilitate Latin America's recovery from the economic disaster.

Scope of the Crisis

The first six years of the 1980s brought Latin America the worst economic conditions that had been seen in the region in more than 50 years. Unemployment levels, traditionally very high, rose in every country of the region during the early 1980s; and in many it reached levels not seen since the Great Depression of the early 1930s. Average levels of total production per person fell by more than 8 percent for all of the region in the five-year period between 1980 and 1985; and some countries endured catastrophic decreases in excess of 20 percent during the same period. Real wage levels, actual wages received adjusted for changes in price levels, fell by more than 40 percent in most of the Latin American cities for which data are available! Latin America's debt to foreigners rose from little more than $25 billion in 1975 to more than $370 billion by the end of 1985. The economic burden of that debt, measured in the proportion of export earnings needed just to pay interest on it, rose from 13percent of exports in the mid-1970s to a peak of 41percent in 1982 and maintained a steady level near 35 percent by the mid-1980s. Some countries, such as Argentina, Bolivia, and Chile, were paying from 40 percent to 50 percent of their export earnings just to cover interest payments on their external debt in the mid-1980s. So it is not surprising that discussions of the origins and consequences of that debt and calls for "debt relief" were the most frequent topics of conversation at every international forum on Latin American economic problems throughout the first half of the 1980s. The crisis of the 1980s took many observers by surprise. In the early 1970s Latin America had appeared in many ways to be well on the road to more rapid growth and development. Latin American governmental leaders grew more and more confident that their evolving policies were taking them in the direction of higher productivity, higher incomes, higher employment levels, and higher standards of living for much of their populations. Brazil and Mexico, the two largest countries of the region in terms of population (containing slightly more than 55 percent of the total Latin American population in 1980), both enjoyed average annual rates of economic growth per capita between 1965 and 1980 in excess of 7 percent, a previously unprecedented feat in twentieth-century Latin American history that was described at that time by some writers as "economic miracles." The small countries of Central America appeared to be "modernizing," expanding their ties to the more developed countries, increasing their exports, and growing at very respectable rates between 3 percent and 4 percent per year in per capita terms. And the middle-sized countries, such as Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador, all showed signs of moving toward higher standards of living, expanded opportunities, and new and more solid roles in the international economy, even if there were various temporary setbacks in each.

What Went Wrong?

With the great historical clarity of hindsight, it is relatively easy to see now that the spurt of growth and change during the 1960s and 1970s was largely superficial. The so-called economic miracles were largely based on temporary increases in production associated with increasing the use of previously idle factories, on expansion of commercial agriculture destined for export that not only lessened the need for laborers but also reduced the production of food crops for domestic consumption, and upon unusually large waves of relatively fickle foreign investment and foreign borrowing. Some economists also argue that the "boom" was created by deliberately reducing the real level of wages paid to workers so that production would be much more profitable for the local and international owners of factories, farms, mines, and other businesses. Where economic growth did occur, it benefited only a very small proportion of the population, mostly the tiny economic elites in each country, the small and relatively wealthy "middle class," and a small number of organized industrial workers. In retrospect the amount of development produced for the poor majority of Latin America was overstated by the overall growth figures on which most attention had focused. In fact, in 1984 President Reagan's bipartisan commission on Central America (the "Kissinger Commission") was forced to conclude, quoting the U.N. Economic Commission on Latin America, that "although some [in Central America] benefitted from social change and economic growth in those decades . . . 'the fruits of the long period of economic expansion were distributed in a flagrantly inequitable manner.'" The commission also found that even at the end of the growth experienced during the 1970s "about half of the urban population and three-quarters of the rural population" in El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua "could not satisfy their basic needs in terms of nutrition, housing, health, and education." The economic collapse that followed, coming after a period of relatively sustained growth, "shattered the rising hopes of Central Americans for a better life." The disillusion that settled across Latin America as conditions deteriorated in the early 1980s affected every country in the region. By 1987 Howard Wiarda of the American Enterprise Institute was led to write: "Neither statistics nor a narrative account adequately convey the despair, the desperation, and the retrogression that have set in. It is likely that Latin America's upper classes as well as some in its middle and lower classes will continue to cope as they have in the past by working harder and longer, cutting back, and foregoing certain things that their prosperity in the 1960s and 1970s had led them to expect. That situation produces frustration and bitterness which . . . are nothing compared with the devastation faced by the approximately 200 million poor people in Latin America. Many of these people have lost hope."

Causes of the Economic Collapse

Latin American economic prosperity since World War II has been closely associated with expansion of Latin America's shipments of export products to the wealthier nations in North America, Western Europe, and Asia. Most of these exports have consisted of relatively unprocessed raw materials, agricultural products, and other commodities that are then processed in the factories of the countries that import them. Economic growth under these circumstances requires not only continued expansion of the markets in the wealthy countries to which they are shipping their products, but also access to credit at low interest rates so that production can be expanded. Latin American development has long been dependent upon importing much of the machinery and some raw materials, such as petroleum, that may not be produced locally. Any increase in the costs of those imports creates a setback to economic growth and development. The first major source of crisis appeared in 1973, and was repeated in 1979, when oil prices increased more than tenfold after the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) began to restrict the supply. Only five countries in Latin America produce enough oil to serve all of their domestic needs and to export some beyond that: Venezuela, Mexico, Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia. For most of the rest of the countries of the region, the increase in oil prices left them with a terrible dilemma. They had three choices: a) reduce oil imports, lessening the production of energy for factories, homes, trucks, and other equipment; b) reduce other imports, including consumer goods or machinery for development or raw materials for their own factories; or c) borrow from banks in foreign countries to pay the extra cost of the petroleum. Most oil-importing countries chose a combination of all three. As a consequence, economic growth began to slow, international debt began to rise, and the reduction in availability of imported products began to add to inflation. Fortunately, interest rates around the world were relatively low in the first years after the oil price increase. Everyone expected the OPEC cartel to collapse after a couple of years. It seemed reasonable to expect that then growth would return, the loans could be repaid from expanded exports, and there would be no permanent setback. But OPEC held together, oil prices continued to rise, and the need to borrow increased. Countries that could postpone some imports for a couple years found that their economies were being badly hurt after four or five years of reduced imports. The need for energy continued to grow, so expanded imports of petroleum could no longer be postponed. The only politically feasible alternative was to borrow more, hoping that the resulting growth would permit repayment of the loans.

Then the second major element in the crisis struck. Beginning in 1979, economic policies were introduced in the United States to attempt to curb the inflation that was beginning to rise here as well. The policies implemented in the last two years of the Carter administration and during the first years of the Reagan administration emphasized a very straightforward set of tactics: reduce the money supply, allowing interest rates to rise fairly rapidly, so that business investment would slow and the inflationary "steam" would be taken out of the U.S. economy. And, it worked, to a certain extent. One of the side-effects of this policy, however, was the impact that U.S. monetary policy had on interest rates worldwide. Interest rates on loans to Latin American countries rose from an average between 7 percent and 8 percent per year in 1975 to nearly 20 percent per year by 1982. Most of the borrowing that Latin America had been forced to undertake in order to cope with the oil price increase was based on "floating" interest rates, rates that adjusted automatically every time international rates changed. So every time interest rates rose in the United States (to reduce inflation here), Latin Americans had to pay higher rates for all of their accumulated debt. This meant, in many cases, that Latin American countries were forced, from year to year, to borrow more funds just to pay interest payments that came due. This increase in debt might have been manageable if Latin American earnings of dollars from their exports had continued to rise. But the economic policies undertaken in the United States reduced production, increased unemployment, and reduced the purchasing power of U.S. citizens. So U.S. firms reduced their imports of products from all over the world. U.S. domestic policy led to a recession throughout the world economy, and the prices of most Latin American exports plummeted. By 1986 Latin Americans had to produce and export 40 percent more of their products just to earn the same number of dollars from exports that they had earned in 1980. It was the worst of the conceivable scenarios for most of the countries of the region: shrinking markets for their exports, continued very high costs of petroleum requiring further borrowing, and continued high interest rates. The net effect of these factors was devastating. Banks were no longer willing to lend, either to support purchases of even reduced levels of petroleum imports or to assist with the expansion of export production. Repayment of all the loans accumulated from 1973 through, say, 1985 was taking much more of the export earnings of most of the countries. In fact, the flow of investment and borrowing that had meant about $10 billion per year in increases in capital in Latin America through the 1960s and early 1970s was completely turned around. From 1982 through 1986 Latin America was a net exporter of capital at the rate of more than $25 billion per year! The fundamental attitudes of most Latin Americans toward their circumstances at the end of this devastating turn-around focused on the fact that most of problem was forced on them, out of their control, and not their responsibility. They had neither control over nor any benefits from the higher interest rates. They had no control over the increased petroleum costs, and only the five petroleum exporting countries stood to gain from them. And the basic role provided for them in a world economy over which they had no control, the role of exporters of unprocessed raw materials, relegated them to worsening economic conditions, again out of their control, as the global recession engineered in the U.S. led to lower prices and lower overall imports in the advanced industrial countries. This perception has been reinforced by research produced by William Cline of the Institute for International Economics, a conservative research organization in Washington, D.C. Dr. Cline has estimated the proportion of the increases in international debt of the poor countries throughout the world between 1973 and 1982 that was attributable to increased oil prices, increased interest rates, and falling prices and falling demand for their principal exports, that is, all the factors that were out of their control. He found that nearly 82 percent of all the increased debt could be explained by those conditions alone.

New Economic Development Models and the Danger to Democracy

Latin America is searching for a solution to this crisis and to the overwhelming need to fill the most basic social and economic needs of its people. The search takes many forms. There are new policies emerging for coping with the burden of debt repayment. There are searches for new products to produce. There are some who seek to find ways to make Latin America less dependent for its growth on the markets of the industrialized countries. There are those who call for a "New International Economic Order" in which the wealthy nations would open their markets to a much wider range of products from the poor countries, in which prices for exports would be stabilized or guaranteed, and in which the outflow of capital from the poor countries would cease. And there are many questions raised, in this process, about the appropriateness or the inappropriateness of the U.S. model of free enterprise and market-based economic development. The responses of U.S. citizens and of the U.S. government to this search and to the experiments with policies that differ from those we might recommend will determine much of the interaction between this country and Latin America for the rest of this century. The economic crisis of the 1980s has also become the political crisis of the 1980s in Latin America. The largely military governments that reigned throughout the region until the early

1980s were generally much more able to impose "austerity" on their people, reducing wage levels, banning demonstrations, disbanding unions and political parties, cutting even minimal government social programs, allowing unemployment to rise, and further reducing government employment. These were the measures that were demanded by the international bankers and other lenders as preconditions for renegotiating payments on debt, for allowing governments to postpone some payments, or for providing small amounts of additional lending for crucial development projects. As one country after another has passed from military control to governance by elected civilian governments, the ability of the government to force these sacrifices from the people has diminished. Elected governments, some say, simply do not have the ability to impose austerity to the same degree as military dictators. Elected governments must respond more directly to the will of the people and the needs of the people. Elected governments cannot quietly accept economic conditions imposed on Latin America from outside, beyond their control, and without much hope for resolution. Resolution of the most fundamental debt and international trade problems of Latin America will be a necessary precondition for stabilizing democratic governments throughout the region. The policies implemented by the United States and the other advanced industrial countries to respond to the critical needs of Latin America will not only determine much of their economic future, they will also determine whether Latin America's fragile experiments with renewed democracy in the 1980s will survive and flourish.

THE TABLEAU OF UNDERDEVELOPMENT

Robert L. Heilbroner

To begin to understand economic development we must have a picture of the problem with which it contends. We must conjure up in our mind's eye what underdevelopment means for the two billion human beings for whom it is not a statistic but a living experience of daily life. Unless we can see the Great Ascent from the vantage point of those who must make the climb, we cannot hope to understand the difficulties of the march.

It is not easy to make this mental jump. But let us attempt it by imagining how a typical American family, living in a small suburban house on an income of six or seven thousand dollars, could be transformed into an equally typical family of the underdeveloped world.

We begin by invading the house of our imaginary American family to strip it of its furniture. Everything goes: beds, chairs, tables, television set, lamps. We will leave the family with a few old blankets, a kitchen table, a wooden chair. Along with the bureaus go the clothes. Each member of the family may keep in his "wardrobe" his oldest suit or dress, a shirt or blouse. We will permit a pair of shoes to the head of the family, but none for the wife or children.

We move into the kitchen. The appliances have already been taken out, so we turn to the cupboards and larder. The box of matches may stay, a small bag of flour, some sugar and salt. A few moldy potatoes, already in the garbage can, must be hastily rescued, for they will provide much of tonight's meal. We will leave a handful of onions, and a dish of dried beans. All the rest we take away: the meat, the fresh vegetables, the canned goods, the crackers, the candy.

Now we have stripped the house: the bathroom has been dismantled, the running water shut off, the electric wires taken out. Next we take away the house. The family can move to the toolshed. It is crowded, but much better than the situation in Hong Kong, where (a United Nations report tells us) "it is not uncommon for a family of four or more to live in a bedspace, that is, on a bunk bed and the space it occupies—sometimes in two or three tiers—their only privacy provided by curtains."[1]

But we have only begun. All the other houses in the neighborhood have also been removed; our suburb has become a shantytown. Still, our family is fortunate to have a shelter; 250,000 people in Calcutta have none at all and simply live in the streets. Our family is now about on a par with the city of Cali in Colombia, where, an official of the World Bank writes, "on one hillside alone, the slum population is estimated at 40,000—without water, sanitation, or electric light. And not all the poor of Cali are as fortunate as that. Others have built their shacks near the city on land which lies beneath the flood mark. To these people the immediate environment is the open sewer of the city, a sewer which flows through their huts when the river rises."[2]

And still we have not reduced our American family to the level at which life is lived in the greatest part of the globe. Communication must go next. No more newspapers, magazines, books—not that they are missed, since we must take away our family's literacy as well. Instead, in our shantytown we will allow one radio. In India the national average of radio ownership is one per 250 people, but since the majority of radios is owned by city dwellers, our allowance is fairly generous.

Now government services must go. No more postman, no more fireman. There is a school, but it is three miles away and consists of two classrooms. They are not too overcrowded since only half the children in the neighborhood go to school. There are, of course, no hospitals or doctors nearby. The nearest clinic is ten miles away and is tended by a midwife. It can be reached by bicycle, provided that the family has a bicycle, which is unlikely. Or one can go by bus—not always inside, but there is usually room on top.

Finally, money. We will allow our family a cash hoard of five dollars. This will prevent our breadwinner from experiencing the tragedy of an Iranian peasant who went blind because he could not raise the $3.94 which he mistakenly thought he needed to secure admission to a hospital where he could have been cured.[3]

Meanwhile the head of our family must earn his keep. As a peasant cultivator with three acres to tend, he may raise the equivalent of $100 to $300 worth of crops a year. If he is a tenant farmer, which is more than likely, a third or so of his crop will go to his landlord, and probably another 10 percent to the local moneylender. But there will be enough to eat. Or almost enough. The human body requires an input of at least 2,000 calories to replenish the energy consumed by its living cells. If our displaced American fares no better than an Indian peasant, he will average a replenishment of no more than 1,700–1,900 calories. His body, like an insufficiently fueled machine, will run down. That is one reason why life expectancy at birth in India today averages less than forty years.

But the children may help. If they are fortunate, they may find work and thus earn some cash to supplement the family's income. For example, they may be employed as are children in Hyderabad, Pakistan, sealing the ends of bangles over a small kerosene flame, a simple task which can be done at home. To be sure, the pay is small: eight annas—about ten cents—for sealing bangles. That is, eight annas per gross of bangles. And if they cannot find work? Well, they can scavenge, as do the children in Iran who in times of hunger search for the undigested oats in the droppings of horses.

And so we have brought our typical American family down to the very bottom of the human scale. It is, however, a bottom in which we can find, give or take a hundred million souls, at least a billion people.[4] Of the remaining billion in the backward areas, most are slightly better off, but not much so; a few are comfortable; a handful rich.

Of course, this is only an impression of life in the underdeveloped lands. It is not life itself. There is still lacking the things that underdevelopment gives as well as those it takes away: the urinous smell of poverty, the display of disease, the flies, the open sewers. And there is lacking, too, a softening sense of familiarity. Even in a charnel house life has its passions and pleasures. A tableau, shocking to American eyes, is less shocking to eyes that have never known any other. But it gives one a general idea. It begins to add pictures of reality to the statistics by which underdevelopment is ordinarily measured. When we are told that half the world's population enjoys a standard of living "less than $100 a year," this is what the figures mean.

Notes

[1] *Social Aspects of Urban Development*, Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, March 10, 1961, p. 129.

[2] "The Cauca Valley," unpublished World Bank memo by George Young (With the kind permission of the author.)

[3] *New York Times Magazine*, April 30, 1961.

[4] Such an estimate is, of necessity, highly conjectural. It takes in only 300 million of India's population and 50 million of Pakistan's, a charitable figure. It includes 50 million Arabs and 100 million Africans, a large underestimate. From South and Central America's poverty it adds in but another 50 millions. The remainder of the billion can be made up from mainland China alone. And we have kept as a statistical reserve the Afghans, Burmese, Indonesians, Koreans, Vietnamese—nearly 200 million in all, among whom is to be found some of the worst poverty on the face of the globe.

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A REVIEW OF LATIN AMERICA IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Gerald Michael Greenfield

Complexity characterizes the study of Latin America even when dealing with the seemingly rudimentary task of defining the region. Geographically, the region embraces the area from Mexico's border with the United States to the tip of South America, a distance of some 7,000 miles. It includes a part of the North American continent, Central America, all of South America and the Caribbean islands.

This vast territory, representing some 19 percent of the world's land surface, subsumes many smaller classificatory units. Historical and linguistic factors produce further divisions. The Caribbean, for example, embraces a basic division between the English-speaking islands, the linguistic offspring of British imperialism, and those colonized by Spain. French-speaking Haiti provides still another contrast. Similarly, in South America, Brazil, discovered and settled by Portugal, stands apart linguistically from its Spanish-speaking neighbors. To twist the kaleidoscope further still, one might separate the Quechua and Aymara-speaking Indian populations, so prominent in Ecuador, Bolivia and Peru and identify an "Indo-America," or focus on the Gran Colombian nations (Ecuador, Colombia and Venezuela). Ethnic considerations also produce distinctions among those parts of Latin America popularly deemed Mestizo (mixed Indian-white), black or European.

The term "Latin American" imposes a false impression of unity on a region embracing almost 30 countries that range in size from small and sparsely settled islands to territorial giants like Brazil, a nation larger than the continental United States and boasting a population well in excess of 100 million.

The oneness of Latin America exists at the level of certain general concepts and some largely shared historical experiences and contemporary conditions as well as a regional expression in international forums like the United Nations, and its own regional association (which includes the United States), the Organization of American States.

Priorities for the Curriculum

Curricula may vary according to, among other factors, the needs of a student population, objectives of the social studies program, and the preference for particular instructional approaches or styles—inquiry methods or the spiral concept, for example.

To allow flexibility and meeting individualized needs, the following brief list of criteria for evaluation presupposes no particular method or specific content. Instead, it suggests a cluster of generally desirable related characteristics:

•Comprehensiveness—the degree to which Latin America receives broad coverage, and the part does not become confused with the whole.

•Balance—the degree to which a specific facet of Latin American reality dominates discussion, thereby contributing to a distorted image.

•Stereotyping—the degree to which the presentation communicates or discourages damaging stereotypes or popular misconceptions about the region and its peoples.

•Sensitivity to complexity—the degree to which the text recognizes multiple causation and the contextual factors that "explain" particular behaviors or events.

•Objectivity—the degree to which a particular ideological stance colors the selection, presentation and interpretation of information.

•Currency—the degree to which outdated information is presented as opposed to the results of newer research.

Within the framework established by the general criteria, several more specific objectives for evaluating and selecting textbooks merit teachers' attention. These include: communicating the diversity of Latin America; establishing a Latin American worldview—for example, attitudes, values, beliefs; suggesting how Latin Americans see their own histories and societies, a view from the inside rather than from the outside; communicating basic information sufficient to create a general familiarity with major features—social, cultural, economic, geographic, political, and historical—of the region; avoiding sweeping generalizations from a limited case study.

Social Studies Materials

Broadly viewed, social studies materials on Latin America emerge as plentiful but of uneven quality, and in many cases seriously outdated. A large number of photographs, slide collections, filmstrips and simulations provide the opportunity for supplementary or enrichment activities. Guides to these types of materials presently exist; new ones are being compiled.[1]

Several recent major curriculum projects, including ones at Stanford, UCLA, the University of Texas at Austin, and the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, have generated important new materials of considerable quality, with the promise of more to come.

For most schools, however, standard texts produced by major educational publishers comprise the bulk of available social studies materials. Depending on grade level, these may focus entirely on Latin America, or simply provide some Latin American content or cases to illustrate other themes. In the lower elementary grades, Latin American examples may appear in units on the family, neighborhood or cities. Grades 5, 6 or 7 often have Latin America as a major focus.

At the high school level, Latin America typically appears in texts dealing with United States history, world history and world geography. The latter two generally have entire units focusing on Latin America; the United States history texts treat the region or its individual countries only when related to specific aspects of U.S. history, for example, the Cuban-Spanish American War or the Cuban Missile Crisis.

Overall then, most major educational publishers produce materials on Latin America as part of their general social studies texts as well as whole volumes that focus more closely on the region. The latter typically fall into one of three categories: Canada and Latin America; regional focus (e.g., only Central America); or generally comprehensive.

Textbook Limitations

In fairness, one must recognize that textbooks confront inherent difficulties in dealing with as broad a subject as Latin America. A tension exists between the presentation of detailed information about individual countries and the level of broader generalizations. Each has both advantages and liabilities. The former approach brings depth, but at the risk of narrowness; the latter yields general understanding but can sacrifice substance and promote stereotyping. Combining the two, producing the proper mix of general principles and concepts with sufficiently detailed specific examples, becomes an extremely difficult task.

Even with this tension acknowledged, the quality of standard social studies texts varies greatly, ranging from soundly framed syntheses to rehashes of outdated information. Basic geographical data receives the most consistent presentation. Most texts provide a competent overview of the region's physical geography and climate, identifying major land formations, river systems and climate zones, and conveying demographic data. Often, however, the political, economic and social correlates of this information remain unspecified; instead, students are presented with a series of seemingly isolated or independent facts.

Geography, Resources and People

Latin America's resource base also receives attention, with the most typical approach being one that links countries with their major export product—for example, Bolivia and tin, or Chile and copper. Emphasizing the region's vast resource endowment also proves typical for most texts. As one representative example puts it: "Latin America has been compared to starving people with gold mines under their feet. There is wealth in oil, iron ore, fertile soil, water power and other resources in this culture region. However, too little has been developed to help the people living there."[2]

Here several caveats must be suggested, lest this emphasis mislead rather than enlighten. Stressing the rich resource base of an area that proves relatively poor and underdeveloped in comparison with the United States suggests something of a tropical myth: poverty amidst rich resources must result from human or cultural inadequacies. To be sure, many Latin American nations have not effectively developed their resources, but the impact of non-volitional factors merits attention.

To begin with, the pattern of resource distribution within individual countries proves far more significant than the endowment of the region as a whole. Distances in Latin America are enormous; geographical impediments are profound; and transportation is relatively difficult. Both historical patterns of trade emerging during the long colonial period and the essentially noncomplementary nature of the economies of individual Latin American nations minimize trade possibilities within the region.

Moreover, the neocolonial status of Latin America, its dependency, first on Great Britain and then the United States, engendered patterns of economic activity that retarded the development of domestic industry and investment capital.

Furthermore, within individual nations, resources often remain inaccessible due to difficult terrain and the absence of sufficient overhead capital to develop both the resources and the necessary transportation routes.

Finally, while land remains the primary economic base for most Latin American countries, the region as a whole, despite its vastness, actually has less arable land than the United States. Save for the Argentine pampas, Latin American soils do not approach the richness of those of the U.S. corn belt.

The better texts acknowledge these problems and underscore not only the need for an appropriate mix of resources but also the interrelationships with political and social factors. But these texts are rare, and most books dramatize the paradox of poverty amidst riches, without addressing the complex reasons.

Religion and Customs

The dominance of Catholicism and the importance of African and indigenous Indian beliefs and practices are discussed. The pronounced anti-Catholic bias that once characterized the treatment of Latin American religious practice—for example, linking Catholicism with underdevelopment due to the absence of the "Protestant Ethic"—has disappeared, but some residues of this feeling of superiority persist.

Thus, teachers should be sensitive to textbook discussions of the population explosion in Latin America. Too often, this complex issue becomes reduced to a religiously motivated proscription against birth control.

The role of the church as an agent of social change in contemporary Latin America receives favorable mention in several texts, like the following example discussing present-day El Salvador: "As in other Central American countries, the revolutionary movement in El Salvador is often led by Catholic priests. The priests feel deeply about the poverty of their people."[3]

Contrasted with religion, Latin American customs do not receive much attention. Save for *carnaval* in Brazil and saints' processions, the extremely rich and varied folklore and popular culture of the region remain neglected. This omission becomes especially serious because games, sports, music and traditions provide compelling activities for public school students.

To some extent, texts reflect a "siesta/fiesta complex" when they do discuss popular culture and traditions, evoking stereotypical images of lazy people who sleep through much of the day and save their energies for parties rather than for work.

Better texts treat Latin American popular culture by providing a context that explains behaviors in rational terms. For example, one such text notes that places in many cities close for siesta from noon till two or three in the afternoon. But it also informs its readers that the noon meal is the heaviest of the day, and that most businesses remain open until 7 P.M.[4]

Economics and Politics

Descriptions of Latin American economies characteristically focus on export dependence, the need to industrialize and obstacles to development. Such discussions often show little sophistication. They sometimes provide a simplistic ideological prescription, specifying industry, education, and a middle class as the solution for all of Latin America's economic problems. The role of international capital, the structure of the international economy, and issues of income distribution or nature of the internal market, to name just a few salient factors, receive scant attention.

Furthermore, few texts display much understanding of economic development as a process, or of the range of such factors as international forces that serve to circumscribe that process in the Latin American context. Instead, they typically stress questions of will or national policy. For example: "The future of Latin America will be determined by the way in which its people protect their historical culture and make wise use of the vast store of natural resources there. If the countries of Latin America use their resources wisely, the quality of life can be greatly improved."[5] Economic literacy, then is not a strong point in most texts, a cause for special concern because most social studies teachers have not had undergraduate majors or strong concentrations in that discipline.

Portrayals of Latin American politics and political systems also display serious weaknesses. Usually neither comprehensive nor sophisticated, they typically focus on a particular phenomenon, for example, instability, the military coup, or the Latin American "strong man" (*caudillo*). Alternatively, they generally content themselves with discussing formal political structure. Thus students may learn that Brazil is a Republic with a two-house legislature, or that Mexico is a one-party democracy. Missing is an analytical framework sufficient to communicate the dynamics of political power in Latin America and its relationship to questions of the economic and social order.

Without a framework, discussions of politics and government partake of the anecdotal or the unreal. Students learns about various colorful leaders, famous generals and fearsome bandits, but gain no deeper understanding of the genesis and role of such people.

Similarly, a focus on the formal political apparatus, with concomitant definitions of democracy or dictatorship, ignore or obscure the reality of rigged elections, elite dominance, systems of clientelism, and the issue of socioeconomic, as opposed to political democracy. In the absence of a more sophisticated discussion, the cycle of coups or revolutions, resulting in no real change, remains an unexplored and unappreciated paradox.

Furthermore, most text discussions use analysis or explanations appropriate to the experience of the United States or of Western Europe, societies whose histories and sociocultural realities diverge markedly from those of most Latin American nations. Political scientists who study Latin America have developed a number of concepts to capture the distinctive flavor and structure of the Latin American political style. Text discussions of Latin America should incorporate such concepts and eschew the simplistic appeal of democrats versus dictators, or the "frito bandido" approach to Latin American political life.

Colonialism and Independence Movements

The overall historical development of Latin America forms another area of uneven coverage in the texts. Highly compressed and often poorly synthesized summaries of nearly five centuries of historical existence prove common, with the episodic or idiosyncratic receiving more extended discussion. Overviews of the colonial period, for example, focus on the drama of discovery and conquest, make some passing reference to patterns of economic exploitation ("the Spaniards came in search of gold") and then jump to movements for independence in the early 19th century. This approach plays fast and loose with some 300 years of historical development.

Latin America's colonial period spanned three centuries. In many ways that experience proved fundamental in structuring Latin America's subsequent development, so much so that the colonial era remains a key concern for Latin American historians. Patterns of authority, the concentration of land, the evolution of a multiracial society, the emergence of a dependent economy, and patterns of urban development, for example, arose during that era. While the formation of societal structures may seem less inherently exciting to students than the conquest of the Aztecs, it should not be ignored by those who would improve student understanding of Latin America.

Discussions of the independence era also are usually flawed by a simplistic approach focusing on leading personalities and sloganeering. Thus Simón Bolívar becomes the George Washington of South America, while freedom and democracy and the example of the United States become the desired objectives: "Inspired by the American and French Revolutions, many South American nations won their independence from Spain and Portugal in the early nineteenth century."[6] This approach ignores the profoundly powerful European impetus to Latin American independence movements, specifically Napoleon's invasion of the Iberian Peninsula. It also obscures the essentially conservative, elitist and antidemocratic character that typified many of these independence movements.[7]

International Relationships

The foreign relations of Latin America with the United States form a highly sensitive issue pregnant with ideological overtones. Here, objectivity becomes both desirable and difficult to achieve. Most texts adopt the "Good Neighbor" position, stressing the concern and helpfulness of the United States. They highlight the Monroe Doctrine, Pan-Americanism, wartime cooperation, and the Alliance of Progress.

Some negative aspects of the United States policy receive recognition, generally those that are far removed in time and can serve as contrasts with more positive recent developments. Thus the "bad" "dollar diplomacy" becomes a lead-in to the Good Neighbor policy. Similarly, a few texts highlight the existence of anti-Yankee sentiment, but typically see it as arising from resentment over past United States interventions, while suggesting that since the 1930s such incidents have ceased to affect relations. "Through a growing interest in inter-American affairs, a Good Neighbor Policy begun by Franklin Roosevelt and the Organization of American States, this resentment is beginning to fade."[8]

In sum, on this subject most texts follow a normative line that places United States actions in a favorable light by choosing to ignore many of the less savory aspects of the relationship or by stressing the essentially good intentions that prompted policy. Thus the Monroe Doctrine originated because "the United Sates decided to do something to make sure no powerful European nations took over the Latin American nations."[9]

The United States Army remained in Cuba after the Spanish American War, because: "to have withdrawn immediately would probably have meant abandoning the Cuban people to a horrible fate—death for millions from starvation, disease and crime. So the army stayed on and set about feeding the starving, caring for the ill, providing basic sanitation needs, and keeping law and order."[10] As for subsequent United States interventions early in the 20th century: "Latin American nations had financial and political troubles that led to riots. The United States wanted to protect its interests and restore order."[11]

A major problem with this approach is that it militates against students' understanding and appreciating a Latin American sense of these issues. While textbooks should not adopt a radical anti-U.S. stance, they should provide differing interpretations of motives and actions. Clearly, the fact that Mexican history presents far different interpretations of the Texas revolt for independence than do most United States accounts deserves acknowledgment.

A Latin American worldview, one that is far more sensitive to interventionism and cognizant of the fact of U.S. power, could be explored without forcing students to accept that view as "true." Some frank avowals of the gap between rhetoric and reality are found. As one text observes, "The United States, for example, preferred to support Latin American dictatorships rather than constitutional regimes which seemed unstable by comparison."[12] In the main, however, the altruistic aims of United States policy receive most discussion.

While the United States remains the single most important foreign actor in contemporary Latin America's international relations, it does not constitute the whole. Unfortunately, Latin America's relations with other nations receives almost no textbook attention. The same holds for the relations of Latin American nations with one another, as well as for the role played by individual nations, or the region as a whole in the United Nations.

In other words, texts suggest that Latin America's world role exists only in relation to the United States. At a minimum, relations among individual Latin American nations, especially in view of the disparities in size and power, incipient rivalries, and, in some cases, longstanding tensions that characterize the region demand attention. Important current events gain in depth and clarity when such contexts become intelligible to students.

Summary

A summary overview of social studies textbooks on Latin America suggests a mixed evaluation, one neither unrelievedly bleak nor consistently strong. Within the strictures of dealing with so vast an area and so many different nations and people, presenting dynamic processes of historical development and assessing contemporary patterns, the texts accomplish a great deal. They provide broad descriptive coverage and some analysis, and, in a few cases, evince a laudable effort to provide even-handed discussions of such sensitive issues as the role of foreign corporations or inequalities in social systems.

This said, problems of tone and deficiencies of content prove more characteristic. Most texts tend toward the exotic in their descriptions and illustrations. Discussions of Brazil, for example, almost unfailingly begin in the "mysterious" Amazon replete with pictures of Indians in rain forest. Granting the romance of far away places, this old *National Geographic* approach can produce unfortunate stereotypes and erroneous impressions. To use the Brazilian example, while the Amazon comprises a major portion of the nation's land mass, a very small percentage of the Brazilian population lives there. In focusing on the Amazon, therefore, one ignores the reality experienced by most of the country's inhabitants.

The quest for what is different might more profitably emphasize Latin American variants of things common to the experience of United States students. For example, Latin American architecture, with its highly distinctive styles and colors, produces urban forms that are both different and typical, but not pejoratively so.

A second issue of both tone and outlook is the heavy emphasis on problems, the Latin-America-as-a-basket-case syndrome, the opposite face of another favored portrait, "The happy native." While the dismal social statistics that characterize most Latin American nations cannot be denied, the dynamism and vibrancy of the region also merit recognition.

There exist many more positive aspects to Latin American reality, for example, the strength of family relationships, capacity for celebration, and a generally greater degree of tolerance for interaction among people of different racial ancestries.

Perhaps more to the point is a need to focus on problems from an internal Latin American perspective, identifying and exploring them within that context rather than presenting the goals and expectations of the United States as the norm for all peoples. In this connection, the presence of a particular set of values undergirds most discussions of Latin America. Tradition, it seems, almost always is bad, an impediment to development. Peasants, identified as "tradition-bound," require education so that they can participate in "modern" society. "The millions of campesinos farm their tiny pieces of land as their ancestors did. They know nothing of modern ways. As a result, they raise only small crops."[13]

Indeed, the tone of most texts celebrates one ongoing process—the transformation of traditional societies into modern, developed ones as the leit-motif of Latin America, and the desired goal becomes the replication of United States society. "The absence of a large middle class has been a major reason for the slow industrial development of Latin America."[14] Such an approach seems to assume the superiority, moral as well as technological, of the United States.

Priorities and Suggestions

The absence of a Latin American worldview constitutes a major deficiency in most texts; the development of this outlook would greatly enhance student understanding of contemporary issues as well as of past events. How, then, does the world look to people living in Mexico? What cultural values and social understandings influence their lives? What hopes do they have for their nation? How do they view the United States? By responding to questions like these, the social studies texts would more sensitively and accurately identify and reveal key facets of Latin American reality.

Here history has an important role. Indeed, the absence of a comprehensive historical survey, in essence the "presentism" of texts, emerges as a particularly serious problem. Latin Americans generally have a deep sense of history and appreciate its weight and power as a structural force in the present. There exists a certain continuity between past and present that differs markedly from the way in which U.S. society celebrates what is innovative or new. Rather than censuring this stance as backward-looking, texts should be sensitive to the appeal and authority of tradition.

In a like fashion, identification and analysis of critically important institutions merit more attention. The church, the land system, social class relationships, the military, the family—all of these generally receive only descriptive coverage. Their historical development and influence in contemporary Latin American society generally remain unspecified. At best, most texts present the "whats" with few of the "whys." In turn, this tends to trivialize the subject, making it a set of aberrant curiosities or quaint customs.

There should be more clarification of values and objectives to produce less culture-bound discussions that take Latin America on its own terms. Content and process-oriented approaches, stressing analysis rather than simply providing description, and rendering the unusual comprehensible rather than celebrating the exotic would greatly strengthen textbook portrayals of Latin America and help to promote the kind of global understanding that is a worthwhile and important goal of social studies education.

Teacher Resources

Ultimately, teachers, not texts, constitute the essential ingredient in education. Oversights, exaggerations and stereotypes all can be compensated for within the classroom. Unfortunately, however, collegiate level instruction on Latin America, save at major campuses, remains rather limited. The background that teachers bring to the classroom needs to be enhanced. Teachers' editions of the major social studies texts provide standard bibliographical suggestions. Yet their major weakness reflects the weakness of the scholarly literature: a paucity of adequate syntheses on important institutional aspects of the Latin American experience designed for those who are not specialists in the field.

Currency represents another problem. Over the past decade scholarly investigations within Latin American studies have broken much important new ground. However, much of this literature remains confined to specialized academic journals and has yet to filter down into general studies.

In some cases, research has deepened or altered understanding of traditional subjects; in others, it has established the significance of factors previously ignored or granted little importance, for example, the role of colonial merchants or the development of urban systems. Finally, it has yielded new analytical perspectives like dependency. In general, then, books of more recent vintage generally prove preferable; obviously, therefore, some of the texts' outdated bibliographic suggestions have little utility.

Fortunately, several major universities have become interested in issues of precollegiate instruction in Latin American Studies, and their various curriculum projects already have produced valuable materials. Notable here are the efforts of the University of Texas at Austin, UCLA, the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, and Stanford University. In addition, a national scholarly organization, the Conference on Latin American History (CLAH), has a committee on teaching materials that is concerned with Latin American instruction at all levels. The Consortium of Latin American Studies (CLASP) also remains vitally concerned with precollegiate instruction through its committee on outreach and teaching.

Several recent surveys are designed for introductory college level courses. These, along with country-focused series like those of Oxford University Press, can provide important background for teachers. A representative listing for these organizations and materials follows:

University Programs

- •Stanford University, Stanford Program on International and CrossCultural Education (SPICE), the Latin American Project. Produced an annotated bibliography for precollegiate educators distributed through the *Clearinghouse Memo* of the Global Perspectives Information Exchange Network, in August 1983. Several curriculum units were produced.
- •University of California, Los Angeles, Curriculum Development Project
- •University of Texas, Austin, Institute of Latin American Studies, Latin American Culture Studies Project. Has produced several important resources ;for teachers including Edward Glab, Jr., ed., *Latin American Culture Studies, Information and Materials for Teaching About Latin America.*
- •University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Center for Latin America. Presently engaged in a Curriculum Development Project for the Middle Grades. Has produced several small papers and studies that are available through the Center.

Conference on Latin American History

- •Lombardi, Cathryn L., and John V. Lombardi. *Teaching Atlas on Latin America.* Madison: University of

Wisconsin Press, 1984.

- Sater, William F., ed. Special Issue on Teaching Latin American History. *The History Teacher*, 14 (May 1981).

Introductory College Level Texts

- Burns, E. Bradford. *Latin America, a Concise Interpretive History.* 3d ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982.
- Keen, Benjamin, and Mark Wasserman. *A Short History of Latin America.* 2nd ed. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1984.
- Lockhart, James, and Stuart B. Schwartz. *Early Latin America, a History of Colonial Spanish America and Brazil.* London: Cambridge University Press, 1984.
- Skidmore, Thomas E., and Peter H. Smith, *Modern Latin America.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1984.

Country-Focused Series

- American University, Foreign Area Studies, Area Handbook Series. Published by the U.S. Government Printing Office. Recent volumes include Panama, Peru, Nicaragua and Chile. Forthcoming volumes will focus on Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Honduras.
- Oxford University Press. Latin American History Series, James R. Scobie, general editor. Titles since 1976 include studies of Peru, the Caribbean, Chile, Bolivia, Venezuela, and Central America.

Notes

[1] See entries in "Teacher Resources," especially University of Texas, Edward Glab, Jr., ed. *Latin American Culture Studies, Information and Materials for Teaching About Latin America.*

[2] *Our World and Its Peoples*, Edward R. Kolenzan and John A. Heine (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1981), 191. This image is restated in the text's section on Mexico (p. 241): "Mexico has been called a 'poor man seated on a bag of gold.'"

[3] *The Pageant of World History*, by Gerald Leinswand (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1983), 8. A similar point is made in *Our World and Its Peoples* (p. 223): "Recently the Church has become more active in the daily lives and concerns of the people. Church leaders have been asking for greater land reform, improved education, and better working conditions for the people."

[4] *Latin America History, Culture, People* (New York: Globe Book Co., 1981), 62. The book goes on to note that "in this relaxed atmosphere punctuality is less important than it is with North Americans."

[5] *World Geography* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1980), 525.

[6] *Land and People: A World Geography* (Glenville, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1979), 11.

[7] This point emerges clearly in Marvin Perry's *Unfinished Journey: A World History* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970), 412.

[8] *The Pageant of World History*, 645.

[9] *Human Heritage, a World History* (Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1981), 583.

[10] *Land of Promise, a History of the United States* (Glenville, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1983), 516.

[11] *Human Heritage, a World History*, 584.

[12] *Unfinished Journey: A World History*, 716; *Land and People: A World Geography*, 538, make the same point with regard to foreign investors.

[13] *People in the Americas* (Morristown, NJ: Silver Burdett 1979), 300.

[14] *Our World and Its Peoples* , 223.

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CHAPTER 3. LESSON PLANS AND WRITING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

Developing lessons and planning courses of study are an indispensable part of classroom teaching. Every teacher knows that for every hour spent presenting a lesson in the classroom, two are spent in preparing it. Creativity, research, and energy combine to produce material that, it is hoped, will interest and enlighten students.

The Latin American–content lesson plans presented in this section have all been developed by professional educators. Most of them can be used as written, although in some cases you will undoubtedly want to adapt some of the material to fit the unique circumstances of your own classroom. Professors Bennett and Fowler offer teachers a valuable framework for enhancing the writing skills of their students through units on Latin America.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS IN PUERTO RICO

Pam McCollum

Introduction

This unit provides examples of lessons that can be done to teach concepts from *Key Ideas: Contemporary Politics, Government and International Relations*. It is intended for use with students at the secondary school level. These lessons can be used either with or without preceding study of the island's history and material culture. A historical outline sketches some of the important events in the island's political history; students, however, will have to examine other sources for supporting material to complete their assignments.

Choosing Puerto Rico as the focus of this unit may seem strange, since its system of government is unlike that of any other Latin American country. I chose it for a number of reasons. First, Puerto Rico provides a unique opportunity for studying colonialism and related concepts. Since 1493, when Columbus claimed the island for Spain, it has had only *one* year of sovereignty. An interesting and important aspect of that history for North American students is that the United States has been one of the colonial powers on the island. A second reason for focusing on Puerto Rico is that the sheer numbers of Puerto Ricans in the United States merit including mention of them in our educational curriculum. In addition, that few people in the United States are aware that Puerto Ricans are U.S. citizens is an indictment of our collective ethnocentrism, which we should strive to change. Finally, the issue of the unresolved political status of Puerto Rico provides an interesting contemporary problem for students to examine and analyze rather than only reviewing historical perspectives on colonialism in other countries.

Time Line of Important Events

Pre-Columbian Era

The first settlers, the *Archaics*, came from the North American continent in log rafts thousands of years ago. The exact date of their arrival is not known. Very little is known of their culture other than that they lived in seminomadic bands and subsisted on fish.

Later, the *Igneris*, who were thought to have come from South America, invaded Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. They were members of the Arawak culture and introduced the Arawak language to the island. They were principally fishermen but were also skilled in ceramics and pottery.

A.D. 1000—The *Taíno Indians* were the last group to establish a civilization on the island before the arrival of the Spanish. Although their exact origin is not known, they left the most complete record of their culture of any of the pre-Columbian groups that lived there. They named the island Borinquén, or "Land of the Noble Lord." Many present-day cities such as Caguas, Humacao, Mayagüez, and Utuado have Taíno names.

The Taínos lived in tribes presided over by a *cacique*, or chieftain, and a *bohique*, or doctor-priest. Their social structure was highly differentiated, and they had a well-delineated religious cosmology, or system of beliefs. They worked extensively in agriculture but were also adept fishermen, potters, and textile workers. When the Spanish arrived, the Taínos numbered approximately 30,000 people in 17 tribes (Williams 1972:10).

Late 1490s—The warlike Carib Indians landed on the eastern coast of Puerto Rico. They challenged the Taíno and, later, Spanish rule of the island but were unsuccessful in permanently establishing themselves on the island.

Spanish Era

1493—The island of Puerto Rico was discovered by Christopher Columbus. Its Taíno Indian name, Borinquén, was changed to San Juan Bautista (St. John the Baptist).

1508—The first city, Caparra, was founded. Juan Ponce de León was installed as the island's first governor.

1511—The Taínos rebelled unsuccessfully against the *encomienda*, or forced labor, system imposed by the Spaniards.

1778—The Spanish crown granted Puerto Ricans the right to own private land.

1808—The Spanish monarchy granted Puerto Rico the right to appoint a representative to the central governing council of the kingdom.

1815—Spain allowed emigration to Puerto Rico from other Catholic countries in the empire.

1860—The population of the island reached 583,308, the majority of whom were slaves working in the cultivation of tobacco, coffee, and sugarcane.

1868—Ramón Betances issued the Provisional Constitution of the Puerto Rican Revolution on January 2, from exile in Santo Domingo.

Puerto Rican patriots issued the Grito de Lares in Lares, Puerto Rico, which proclaimed Puerto Rican independence. The nationalist revolt was quickly curtailed.

1887—Political activists called for self-government.

1897—Spain granted autonomy to Puerto Rico.

1898—The Spanish-American War began on July 25. The battleship *Maine* was blown up in Havana Harbor. U.S. troops landed in Guánica on Puerto Rico's southern coast.

American Era

1899—Spain yielded Puerto Rico to the United States. A military government was instituted.

1900—Puerto Rico became a U.S. territory with the signing of the Foraker Act. An American governor was named.

1937—Nineteen people were killed and 100 injured when police fired on a nationalist parade in Ponce on March 21.

1938—**The Partido Popular Democrático** (The Popular Democratic party) was founded by Luis Muñoz Marín.

1940—After the 1940 election, the U.S. and Puerto Rico entered into an agreement known as Operation Bootstrap, aimed at improving the economy and standard of living in Puerto Rico.

1946—**The Partido Independentista Puertorriqueño (PIP)** was organized. Other independence organizations, such as the **Federación de Universitarios Pro Independencia (FUPI)** and the **Movimiento Pro Independencia (MPI)**, were formed.

1947—The Crawford-Butler Act, which allowed Puerto Rico to elect its own governor, was signed by President Truman.

1948—Luis Muñoz Marín of the **Popular Democratic party** became the first popularly elected governor of the island.

1950—Public Law 600 gave Puerto Rico the right to draft its own constitution .

Five Puerto Rican nationalists attacked the governor's mansion. Civil disorder spread through other towns on the island.

Two Puerto Rican nationalists from New York attempted to kill President Truman. Their attempt failed but a White House policeman and one of the attackers were killed. Well-known nationalists on the island were convicted for complicity in the attempt.

1952—The Commonwealth Constitution went into effect. It was passed by a referendum, 374,000 to 82,000 (Cordasco & Bucchioni 1973:10).

1953—The highest level of Puerto Rican migration to the U.S. mainland was reached as 69,000 Puerto Ricans arrived.

1954—Four Puerto Rican nationalists fired in the U.S. House of Representatives, wounding five U.S. congressmen.

1964—Muñoz Marín retired as governor. Roberto Sánchez Vilella, also of the Popular Democratic party, succeeded him.

1965—Literacy tests in English to procure the right to vote were abolished with the passage of the Civil Rights Act (1965). In its place, Puerto Ricans had to prove they had attended 6 years of school in Puerto Rico.

1967—A referendum on the status issue was held: 60.5 percent voted for commonwealth status, 38.9 percent for statehood, and 6 percent for independence.

1968—Luis A. Ferré of the pro-statehood **Partido Nuevo Progresista (PNP)** was elected governor. The Partido Popular Demócrata was turned out of office for the first time in 28 years.

1970—Migration from Puerto Rico to the mainland fell to 1,811 persons as a result of the mainland recession. The net exodus since 1940 from the island was 800,000 (Cordasco & Bucchioni 1973:17).

1971—The Cuban representative to the United Nations presented a resolution to debate U.S. colonialism in Puerto Rico in the U.N. Trusteeship Council.

1972—**El Partido Popular Demócrata** was returned to power with the election of Rafael Hernández Colón as governor.

1976—The mayor of San Juan, Carlos Romero Barceló of the New Progressive party, won election as governor of the island.

1978—Andrés Figueroa Cordero, a Puerto Rican nationalist who opened fire in the U.S. House of Representatives, died after 23 years in prison.

Governor Romero Barceló advocated statehood for Puerto Rico in a speech before the U.N. Special Committee on Decolonization.

President Jimmy Carter commuted the sentence of Puerto Rican nationalist Oscar Collazo, who attempted to assassinate President Truman in 1950, and granted clemency to Lolita Lebrón, Irving Flores Rodríguez, and Rafael Cancel Miranda, who fired on the U.S. House of Representatives in 1954, wounding 5 congressmen.

Two young *independentistas*, Carlos Soto Arrivi and Arnaldo Darío Rosado, were killed near federal and commonwealth communication installations at Cerro Maravilla. The police charged the men with attempting to sabotage the facilities and said they opened fire only after being shot at by the youths (The *New York Times*, July 29, 1978).

1980—Luis Muñoz Marín, the father of the Popular Democratic party, died at age 82.

Expressions of nationalist sentiment surfaced both in Puerto Rico and in the United States. On the island, "Los Macheteros" claimed responsibility for ambushing U.S. military personnel (The *New York Times*, March 14, 1980), and on the mainland, members of the FALN (Federación Armada de Liberación Nacional) broke into campaign offices of U.S. presidential candidates in New York and Chicago (The *New York Times*, March 16, 1980).

Carlos Romero Barceló of **El Partido Nuevo Progresista (PNP)**, which favors statehood, was reelected governor.

1984—Rafael Hernández Colón of **El Partido Popular Demócrata (PPD)** defeated Governor Romero Barceló. The main campaign issues were the still-unresolved Cerro Maravilla scandal of 1978 and the creation of more jobs.

1985—Ten Puerto Rican police officers were found guilty of 45 counts of perjury and conspiracy to commit perjury for lying to federal grand juries investigating the deaths of two advocates of independence at Cerro Maravilla in July of 1978 (The *New York Times*, March 29, 1985).

Concepts

colonialism
sovereignty
imperialism
self-determination
exploitation
nationalism

Vocabulary

territory
free-associated state
citizenship
commonwealth
republic
referendum
plebiscite
Puerto Rican Independence party (Partido Independentista Puertorriqueño)
Popular Democratic party (Partido Popular Demócrata)
New Progressive party (Partido Nuevo Progresista)
Operation Bootstrap

Unit Objectives

1. Students will be able to identify examples of colonialism and imperialism in Puerto Rican history.

2. Students will be able to identify important nationalistic movements in Puerto Rican history.

3. Students will be able to analyze and contrast the positions of proponents of each of the status alternatives—independence, commonwealth, and statehood.

4. Students will be able to identify and contrast differences in the rights and privileges conferred by citizenship to those living in the U.S. and those living in Puerto Rico.

5. Students will be able to identify the major political parties in Puerto Rico and contrast their positions with respect to the status issue.

6. Students will be able to analyze and contrast the advantages and disadvantages of statehood status from a number of perspectives.

7. Students will be able to identify and analyze the positions of various groups with respect to their traditional allegiances vis à vis the status issue.

8. Students will be able to state reasons and possible consequences of their choice for a status alternative for Puerto Rico.

Government and Politics in Puerto Rico

Teaching Strategies

1. Divide the class into small groups, which are to investigate one of the three political status options for Puerto Rico—independence, commonwealth, or statehood. Have them present to the class a list of pros and cons for each alternative.

2. Students should conclude that it is difficult to complete the first activity without projecting oneself into a particular role. If no mention is made of this, tell the class to investigate the positions of the following parties and to identify their constituencies:

a. The Progressive party
b. The Popular Democratic party
c. The Puerto Rican Independence party

3. Have students role play the positions of the following people regarding their feelings on the status question:

a. Luis Muñoz Marín
b. Pedro Albizu Campos
c. Luis A. Ferré
d. An American industrialist
e. An American liberal
f. A middle-class Puerto Rican

4. Tell students to examine the Time Line of Important Events, which is included in this unit, to identify examples of expressions of Puerto Rican nationalist sentiments against colonial exploitation. As a group, review the incidents they choose to cite. Note how they classify incidents after 1954, when commonwealth status went into effect. Explore with them their reasons for including and excluding particular examples.

Have small groups investigate the biographies of the four nationalists who fired in the House of Representatives (listed below). Ask them to try to identify incidents from their personal histories that might have led to their actions.

Rafael Cancel Miranda
Lolita Lebrón
Andrés Figueroa Cordero
Irvin Flores

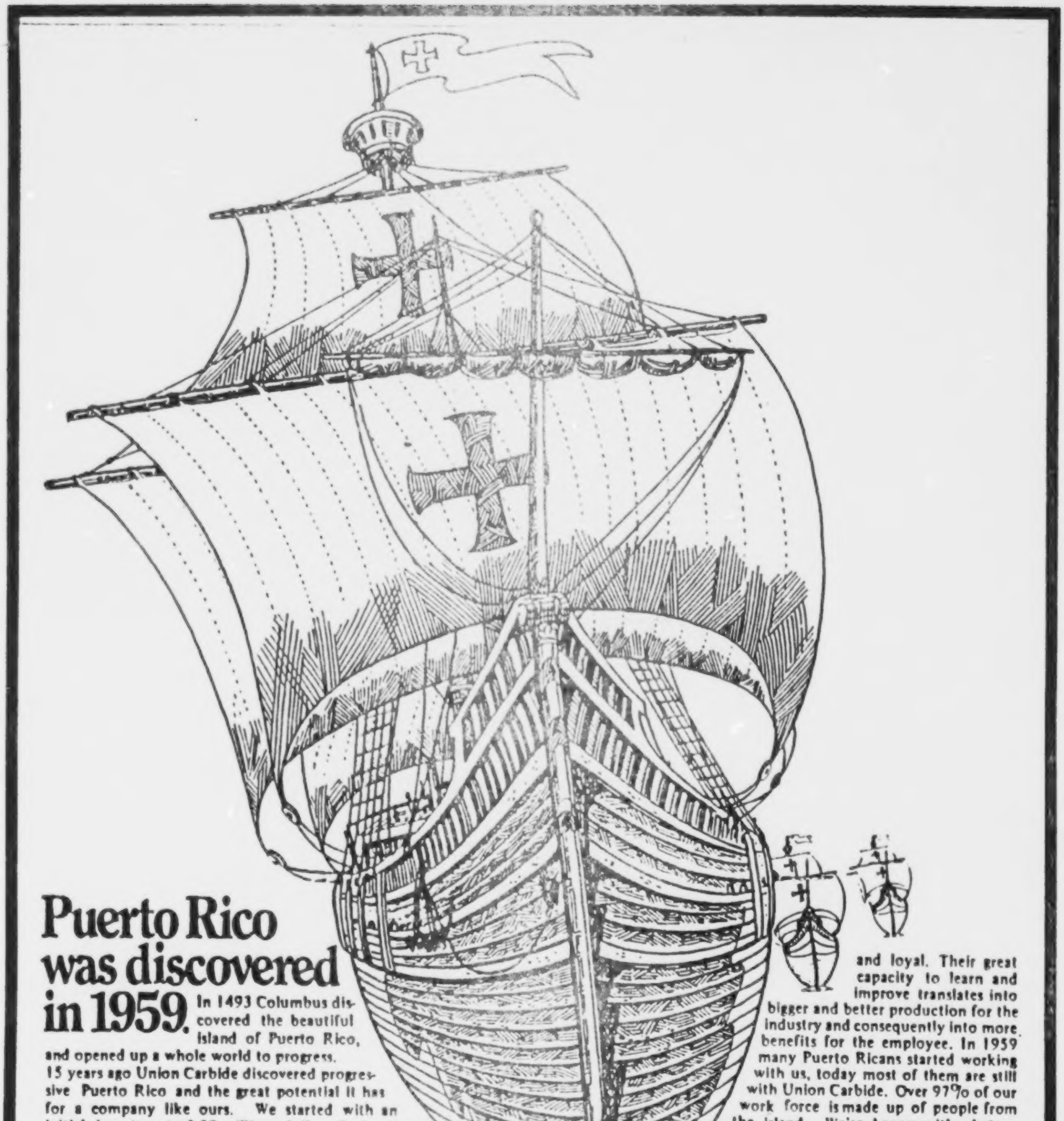
5. Tell students they must be able to cite two examples of colonialism from previous study of other countries or from investigating the issue to participate in a class discussion on colonialism and imperialism. During the class discussion raise points such as the following: Imperialism does not involve only the acquisition of new territory; it may involve acquiring new, cheap economic markets, which will serve the purposes of the colonial power as well. Provide students with a handout of the Union Carbide ad. Ask them to analyze and interpret it.

Another form of colonialism, known as *internal colonialism*, can also exist. This takes place when the colonial power does not rule directly in the colony but provides the colony limited autonomy to run its own affairs.

6. If it does not arise in the discussion of number 4, pose the following to the class for discussion: According to Cripps (1974:69), "Commonwealth [status] is camouflaged colonialism."

Have students divide into research groups to discuss and investigate this position. Ask them to document their opinions with concrete examples.

If possible, have them examine the Foraker Act (1900) and the Commonwealth Constitution (1952) to compare the amount of autonomy conferred by each.



Puerto Rico was discovered in 1959.

In 1493 Columbus discovered the beautiful island of Puerto Rico, and opened up a whole world to progress. 15 years ago Union Carbide discovered progressive Puerto Rico and the great potential it has for a company like ours. We started with an initial investment of 30 million dollars. Today that investment has grown to over 450 million dollars and it's still growing. What's behind this growth? People. Puerto Ricans have many traditions and strong family ties. Their way of living and their self-respect make them hardworking and loyal. Their great capacity to learn and improve translates into bigger and better production for the industry and consequently into more benefits for the employee. In 1959 many Puerto Ricans started working with us, today most of them are still with Union Carbide. Over 97% of our work force is made up of people from the island. We're happy with what we have discovered about Puerto Rico. Maybe you'd like to make a discovery of your own.

UNION CARBIDE

The Discovery Company

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

7. The goal of this activity is to make a composite of the pluses and minuses of commonwealth status for Puerto Rico and the United States. Have small groups select a topic from the following list and list the advantages and disadvantages for each country with respect to the topic:

Industry
Tax exemptions
Natural resources
Tourism
Military presence
Health
Education
Employment
U.S. citizenship

Have students present the information they gather and discuss whether the commonwealth relationship has been mutually beneficial.

8. Conduct a formal debate on the status issue. As a culminating activity conduct a plebiscite to poll the class on their opinions regarding Puerto Rico's political status.

Recommended Bibliographies

Banks, J. (1987). *Teaching Strategies for Multiethnic Education.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

The unit on Puerto Rico reference is an excellent source for teachers to reacquaint themselves with Puerto Rico. It very succinctly describes major events in Puerto Rican history and provides a very useful bibliography of sources that would be useful for the classroom teacher.

Durán, D. (1979). *Latino Materials: A Multimedia Guide for Children and Young Adults.* New York: Neal Schuman, pp.175–198.

Contains an excellent section of annotated references of books on Puerto Rico divided into elementary and secondary school sources. It also has a listing of films on Puerto Rico and the Puerto Rican experience as well as professional references.

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Banks, J. (1987). *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies,* 4th ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

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LAND AND FREEDOM
IMPERIALISM IN CENTRAL AMERICA

Stan Rubenstein

This is a series of self-contained lessons in land use, with activities as highlights, which can be used with any high school American studies classroom instruction. Each lesson is cross-referenced to major textbooks.

Theme: After the Spanish-American War, the United States embarked upon an active policy of imperialism in Central America.

Subtheme: The Central American nations became the focal point of economic imperialism by American corporations.

Concepts:
- "Banana Republics"
- dollar diplomacy
- imperialism
- land grants
- multinational corporation

Performance Objectives: Students will be able to
- *analyze* an interpretation contrasting two views on imperialism
- *evaluate* a contract between a country and a company
- *research* a multinational corporation

Related Texts:
- *American Experience*, Addison Wesley, ch. 12
- *Building the United States*, Harcourt Brace, ch. 75
- *A History of the United States*, Ginn, ch. 19
- *Making of Modern America*, Houghton Mifflin, ch. 35
- *The United States*, Prentice Hall, ch. 27
- *These United States*, Houghton Mifflin, ch. 18

IMPERIALISM IN CENTRAL AMERICA

As European countries furthered their economic penetration of Africa and Asia during the 19th century, the United States continued its westward expansion, extending its borders to the Pacific. While the United States had had an interest in the Western Hemisphere since the Monroe Doctrine of 1823, it was only after the Spanish-American War in 1898 that this nation became aware of the economic potential in Central American countries.

It was the introduction of the banana into the United States in 1870 that caused individuals and companies to recognize the potential of Central America. For economic, as well as political, reasons, President Theodore Roosevelt became interested in areas south of the border and instituted the "Big Stick" policy. President Taft subsequently, in stressing the area's economic importance, pursued a policy of "dollar diplomacy." With governmental approval, the stage was thus set for U.S. businesses to develop underdeveloped nations. And thus United Fruit, an example of one such corporation, made its mark in Central America, and soon established a monopoly in the banana trade.

Although not the only company to produce and trade in Central America, United Fruit was by far the strongest associated with "Yankee imperialism." From its inception in 1899—an amalgam of several other companies—it grew in such proportions that it accounted for 65% of banana exports to the United States before World War II. How this came about comprises a partial history of the "banana republics." It is a study of brilliant organization, multiplication of assets, accumulation of profits, initiative, and ability in establishing a market. Part of the company's success was due to its destructive tactics towards competition, its illegal activities and its political clout with local politicians.

But without control over natural resources, it is questionable how much of its success would have been possible. For United Fruit was a giant not only in the business of agriculture but also in the role of landowner.

United Fruit's growth in the banana republics went hand in hand with its acquisition of natural resources. In countries such as Costa Rica, Honduras, Guatemala, Panama, and Cuba, the company became a vast landowner. In Honduras, United Fruit controlled over 400,000 acres, 40% obtained free due to grants. In country after country, this firm was a leading real estate holder, owning or leasing over three million acres before World War II. Control of these lands made United Fruit the most successful corporation in Central America.

Transporting bananas from the interiors of the jungles had to be done by the most modern, expeditious methods. It was important, therefore, that United Fruit get control of the railroads and also engage in railroad construction, through its various subsidiaries. As an inducement, local governments granted the company from 250 to 500 acres for each mile of railroad construction. United Fruit received alternate blocks of land, with each other section going to the people of the nation where track was being laid (similar to the railroad land grant system in the United States). However, since large areas are required for banana cultivation, the company had intermediaries lease the land back from native landholders. This enabled the company to obtain vast acreage with a minimum investment. United Fruit was thus able to use much of each nation's agricultural land and at the same time reap high profits for its stockholders.

Other American companies, too, gained control of natural resources and thus monopolized trade. This monopoly of land gave these companies an extraordinary amount of influence—much more than most citizens of the country could exercise. Controlling natural resources was an important step in monopolizing other stages of the banana trade, which United Fruit accomplished with maximum success.

Activity 1—Analyzing Poetry about Imperialism

One of the most famous poems advocating that European nations imperialize undeveloped countries was "The White Man's Burden" by Rudyard Kipling:

> Take up the white man's burden,
> Send forth the best ye breed—
> Go, bind your sons to exile,
> To serve your captives' need.
> To wait in heavy harness,
> On fluttered folk and wild—
> Your new caught sullen peoples,
> Half devil and half child.

"The Poor Man's Burden," a poem by Howard Taylor, was in answer to Kipling's:

> Pile up the poor man's burden;
> Keep in the old, old track!
> Let glory ride, as ever,
> Upon the toiler's back.
> Lay tax and tax upon him,
> Devised with subtle skill—
> Call forth his sons to slaughter
> And let him pay the bill!

After reading both poems, please answer the following questions:

1. Explain the meaning of the first poem.
2. Explain the meaning of the second poem.
3. How accurate is Kipling's version of the people that the Europeans would colonize?
4. In Taylor's version, to what extent is the success of the colonizer due to his ingenuity?
5. Would less developed nations have been better off if industrial nations had not colonized or imperialized them?
6. In the case of imperialism, does "might make right"?

Activity 2—Analyzing a Contract

Below is an actual contract made between the government of Costa Rica and a private company towards the end of the 19th century.

> The Government grants to the company 800,000 acres of undeveloped national lands along the railroad line or in any other part of the country, to be selected by the company, with all the natural wealth which said areas contain and the strip of land for the right-of-way for the building of the railroad and the necessary structures; and all kinds of material necessary for the construction of the railroad which may be found in undeveloped national lands anywhere along the railroad; and two of the lots of national property now measured in the port of Limón, for the construction of wharves, warehouses and stations—all without reimbursement of any sort. . .
>
> The Government cannot lay taxes on said lands within twenty years, counting from the effective date of this concession—it being understood that upon expiration of this term of twenty years, lands that have not been cultivated or utilized in any other manner shall return to the Government without the latter having to make any indemnity payment of any sort.

After reading the above, please respond to the following questions:

1. Based upon the contract, what benefit did the Costa Rican government receive?
2. What were the benefits received by the company?
3. What are some of the reasons that the government may have entered into this contract?
4. Which party seemed to gain most from the contract? Why?
5. Check some recent newspaper articles. Has the United States entered any such agreements lately?

6. How important was railroad construction to the economy of Costa Rica?

Activity 3—Researching a Multinational Corporation

During the latter part of the 19th century, the multinational corporation began to emerge, as demonstrated by the rise of United Fruit. Many were active in what is described as Third World countries, opening up new markets.

After several world wars, this type of corporation has become more powerful and its economic positions more concentrated. Although the United States has more of such corporations (some of which are Anaconda Copper, Chase Manhattan Bank, Ford, Exxon, General Electric, General Motors, Mobil, Royal Dutch, and Sears Roebuck) than any other country, European and Japanese multinational firms also exert powerful economic influence.

Choose one multinational corporation (see *Fortune* magazine's directory of 500 leading corporations) and request information about it, including its latest annual report. Many of the firms have headquarters or offices in New York. Use the material to write a short report which includes answers to the following:

1. the corporation's major products
2. countries with which the company deals
3. tone of the annual report, especially concerning its impact upon countries with which it deals
4. any positive or negative comments read or heard about the company
5. evaluation of the effect this corporation has had upon some of the nations with which it is involved

Because today's world demands a better grasp of economics for all, these lessons are published in the public interest by the Robert Schalkenbach Foundation, in cooperation with the Henry George School.

Henry George was an economist and philosopher whose land reform ideas have been adopted in many parts of Australia and New Zealand, as well as in Pennsylvania's major cities, including Pittsburgh. Land is a gift of nature, according to George, needed by all and to be shared by all, not by just a few.

The foundation, a nonprofit publisher, was incorporated in 1925 to help abolish poverty by keeping George's books in print and by disseminating his ideas. Books, pamphlets, and films by other authors are also published. In addition, the foundation helps finance the *American Journal of Economics and Sociology* and supports university and other group programs.

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THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF MEXICO AND THE UNITED STATES

Buck Barnes
Gloria Contreras

ANTICIPATORY SET: Write on board or present an overhead transparency

THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF MEXICO
AND THE UNITED STATES

Culture is the way of life of a group of people
Heritage is the history of a culture.
Mexico and the United States have different cultural heritages

Show series of slides from *National Geographic* that feature articles about Mexico: September 1980, May 1981, November 1982, August 1984, June 1985, December 1985.

Have Mexican artifacts (flags, pictures, postcards, records, folk art, etc.) on display

OBJECTIVES

The students will define the following concepts verbally or in writing:

culture
heritage
acculturation

The students will fill out Study Chart I, comparing the cultural heritages of Mexico and the United States as teacher lectures and outlines material on overhead transparency or chalkboard.

Using any sources available to them, the students will locate additional information on Mexico and write three other examples of cultural traits on their Study Charts. Pupils will discuss their findings.

INPUT

Teacher explains and outlines the following themes of the lesson that will be studied:

1. Heritage
2. Spanish and Indian heritage of Mexico
3. English heritage of the United States
4. Acculturation in Mexico
5. Dominance of English traits in the U.S. culture

MODELING

Students refer to sections as teacher explains each part and students fill out Study Chart.

Day 1: Handout,* Sections 1 and 2: "Heritage" and "Spanish and Indian Heritage of Mexico"
Day 2: Handout, Section 3: "English Heritage of the U.S."
Day 3: Handout, Section 4: "Acculturation in Mexico"
Day 4: Handout, Section 5: "Dominance of English Traits" in the U.S. Culture"
(* attached)

Check for Understanding

After the class studies the information contained in the handout, the teacher will lead a discussion in the formation of the following conclusion:

CONCLUSION

The culture of modern Mexico has its *heritage* in two cultures: Spanish and Indian. *Acculturation* between these two cultures led to the Mexican culture of today.

The culture of the modern United States has its *heritage* in the culture of England. Very few Indians lived in the United States compared with the number who lived in Mexico when the Europeans arrived in the New World. *Acculturation* was slight between the English and the Indians.

GUIDED PRACTICE

The teacher will have students define the major concepts of the lesson:

Heritage
Culture
Acculturation

STUDY CHART I
The Cultural Heritages of Mexico and the United States

Traits	Mexico		United States	
	Indian	Spanish	Eastern Woodland Indian	English
Religion				
Food				
House Types				

INDEPENDENT PRACTICE

Assign students to research three additional examples for the Mexican and for the U.S. cultures. These traits will be summarized and added to their Study Charts. A class discussion on this exercise will conclude the lesson.

HANDOUT

THE CULTURAL HERITAGE OF MEXICO AND THE UNITED STATES

1. Heritage

Culture is the way of life of a group of people. *Heritage* is the history of a culture. Mexico and the United States have different cultural heritages.

2. Spanish and Indian Heritage of Mexico

Mexico has a Spanish and an Indian heritage. The culture of modern Mexico is a result of *acculturation* between people of the Spanish and Indian cultures. Acculturation is the sharing of traits caused by contact between two cultures over a long period of time.

Many of the cultural traits of modern Mexico are no longer completely Spanish or completely Indian; they reflect both cultures. This can be seen in the food traits of Mexico. Some of the food traits from the Spanish heritage are onions, cabbage, radishes, turnips, sugarcane, bananas, and citrus fruits. Some of the food traits from the Indian heritage are corn, tomatoes, potatoes, beans, squash, pineapples, and cocoa.

The house traits of Mexico show both Spanish and Indian origins. An example of a Spanish house is the one-story, rectangular house of whitewashed adobe walls with gabled roofs of hollow tile. One type of Indian house is square or rectangular with stone walls and steep roofs thatched with dried grass.

The Spanish and Indian heritages can also be seen in Mexico's language, religion, and systems of land ownership. These and other traits will be discussed in detail in later chapters of this book and many changes in the traits will be described.

3. English Heritage of the United States

The U.S. heritage is mainly English. There was little acculturation between English colonists and Eastern Woodland Indians. As a result, English influence in the culture of the United States is dominant and the Indian influence slight.

The English heritage can be seen in the house traits of the United States. The first houses in the Jamestown colony were similar to those that were lived in by poor people in England for hundreds of years. Their walls were made of vertical wooden stakes set a few inches apart. Willow or hazel branches were woven in and out horizontally and both sides of these walls were plastered with mud. The roofs were of thatched dried grass and were supported by forked posts.

Clapboard houses, which were popular in England, have been widely used in the United States. Clapboards are wedge-shaped pieces of lumber that are overlapped on the walls of houses to keep out bad weather.

Wealthy people in the United States built Georgian-style houses like those in England. They had steep roofs, a door in the middle, and the same number of windows on either side of the door. Most were two or three stories high, two rooms deep, and were built of brick. Even today, Georgian-style houses are considered desirable by many people in the United States.

The English heritage can also be seen in the food traits of the United States. Grains such as wheat and rye, many types of vegetable, and several seed and stone fruits are part of the English heritage. Although acculturation between the English colonists and the Indians was very limited, some food traits are Indian. Corn is the most common Indian food trait. Squash is another.

The English heritage can also be seen in the language, religion, and the system of land ownership in the United States. These and other traits of the United States will be discussed in detail in later chapters of this book.

4. Acculturation in Mexico

The dense Indian population of Mexico has been a major factor in Spanish-Indian acculturation. There may have been as many as 15 million Indians living in Mexico when the Spanish conquered the country. From 1 to 2 million lived in the Valley of Mexico. This large Indian population could not move out of the way of the Spanish. They had to be made part of the Spanish colonial system. They were forced to adopt many Spanish cultural traits. The Indians adopted Spanish traits because the Spanish conquest destroyed the Indian pattern of culture. The Spanish had a superior *technology*. They had guns, wheeled carts, iron tools, and domesticated animals. The Indians did not have these traits.

Similarity of cultural traits helped Spanish and Indian acculturation. One similarity had to do with paying taxes. Before the Spanish came to Mexico the Indians paid tribute to the Aztec rulers. In Spain the people paid taxes to the king. After the Spanish conquest of Mexico, the Indians paid tribute to the Spanish rather than to the Aztecs. The tax-paying trait itself did not change; only the government that received the taxes changed.

Another similarity that encouraged cultural stability in Mexico had to do with the agricultural traditions. The Mexican Indians were agriculturalists. Many were accustomed to farming in a dry country. The Spanish were also accustomed to farming in a relatively dry country. The Indians acquired new crops from the Spanish, and the Spanish acquired new crops from the Indians.

The Spanish and Indian cultures also had similar settlement patterns. Most of the people in both countries lived in fixed settlements. With the exception of a few tribes in northern Mexico, the Indians were not nomadic. This, too, did not change when the Spanish gained control of Mexico. The people continued to live in fixed settlements.

Spanish and Indian influences are not the same throughout modern Mexico. The southern part of the country had a dense Indian population. A census population maintains cultural traits better than a sparse population. These Indians maintained many of the traits of their Indian cultures. Even today the way of life in southern Mexico is more Indian than it is Spanish.

Northern Mexico has more of a Spanish heritage. The northern part of the country had a sparse, nomadic Indian population. Most of these Indians were killed or driven out. As the Spanish settled this part of the country, they brought traits of their culture. It was more difficult for the small number of Indians remaining in northern Mexico to resist adopting the Spanish traits than it was for the large number of Indians in southern Mexico.

Intermarriage of people from different cultures is a major cause of acculturation. Most of the early Spanish migrants to Mexico were single men. Many Spanish men married Indian women. Their children grew up with a parent from the Spanish culture and a parent from the Indian culture. These children learned both Spanish and Indian cultural ways. They were the first *mestizos*. Most people in Mexico today are *mestizos*.

Acculturation also took place as a result of work and religious conversion. The Spanish forced the Indians to work on their ranches and farms, and in their mines. Spanish religious orders systematically converted Indians to the Roman Catholic religion. Under their supervision, Indians built beautiful churches and monasteries.

5. Dominance of English Traits in the U.S. Culture

There was little acculturation between the English colonists and the Eastern Woodland Indians in the United States. One of the reasons for this was that less than one million Indians lived in the entire country when the English first arrived. Of these, only an estimated seventeen thousand lived east of the Appalachian Mountains, where the English colony of Virginia was founded. Because the Indian population of the United States was much smaller than that of Mexico, English-Indian contacts were much more limited than Spanish-Indian contacts had been in Mexico.

As the number of colonists increased, the Indians were killed off and moved out of the way of the more powerful English. There was very little intermarriage between the English and Indians, and the few attempts to force the Indians to work for the English failed. Finally, only limited efforts were made to convert the Indians to the English Protestant religion. All of this was quite different from the great amount of contact that took place between the Spanish and the Indians in Mexico.

Throughout the entire United States, the heritage of the English and other European nations is dominant, even though some Indian food traits as well as the Indian practice of smoking tobacco were adopted. In the southwestern part of the United States, however, the Spanish heritage is very important.

References

Edwards, Mike. "Mexico: A Very Beautiful Challenge: *National Geographic* 153, no. 5 (May 1978): 612–647.

Horcasitas, Fernando. "It's a Way of Life: Mexican Folk Art." *National Geographic* 153, no. 5 (May 1978): 648–669.

Barnes, Buckley, and M. J. Rice. *Cultural Change in Mexico and the United States*. University of Georgia. Unit available through M. J. Rice, the University of Georgia, Anthropology Curriculum Project, Athens, GA 30602 (404) 242–7268.

MODERN MEXICAN PAINTING

Neal Finer

The following lesson applies the key ideas approach to contemporary Mexican culture, in this case "Modern Mexican Painting." The lesson is designed to serve as a model for teachers to develop further lessons on Latin American culture in general and Mexico in particular. It emphasizes the use of multimedia methodology and has been tested by in-service and preservice teachers in both monolingual and bilingual classroom settings in art, Spanish, ESL, and social studies. Judging from student attitude inventories, the lesson contributes to developing cultural awareness, both cognitive and effective.

Key Idea

Modern Mexican painting (1950s–76) increasingly reflects international modern art trends blended with underlying indigenous, national accents—producing a varied, sophisticated Mexican international style quite unlike the nationalistic muralism of the early modern period (1910–50s).

Student Objectives

1. To perceive the variety and sophistication of modern Mexican painting (1950s–76), quite unlike the nationalistic muralism of the early modern period (1910–50s).
2. To become aware of the international art trends that increasingly are blended with underlying indigenous, national accents—producing a Mexican international style—through observation of paintings by leading Mexican artists.

Two books to help teachers with this lesson include

Contemporary Mexican Painting in a Time of Change, by Shifra M. Goldman. Austin,: University of Texas Press, 1981.

Painted Walls of Mexico: From Prehistoric Times until Today, by Emile Edwards. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1966.

Materials Checklist

1. Pictures of pop, op, abstract painting by Warhol, Vasarely, and Pollock.
2. Wall Chart—posterboard with the tentative hypotheses written out.
3. Pictures of five paintings by leading Mexican artists: Tamayo, Cuevas, Nierman, Friedeberg, and Toledo.
4. Dittos: Handout A—Guide to Five Recent Mexican Paintings; Handout B—Highlights of Recent Trends in Latin American Visual Arts.
5. Pictures of ten additional samples of recent modern Mexican painting.
6. Tape recordings of quotes by Jorge Manrique and Rufino Tamayo.

Activities

Introduction

Begin the lesson with the following questions:

Q: What do you think when you hear the terms "modern art"? "modern painting"? Ask whether students have seen examples of modern painting in their homes, in the school, or in an art museum? If so, ask them to describe the example they find most appealing to look at and tell why. Does it reflect a modern value, ideal, or cultural trend? Does it have an identifiable style, such as pop art, op art, abstract art? Ask whether students are familiar with these international art trends and refer to specific definitions of each (previously written on the blackboard).

Note the value, ideal, or cultural trend each reflects:

a) Pop art—art reflecting popular commercial values of contemporary life.

b) Op art—art reflecting the optical, media-centered trend of modern culture.
c) Abstract art—art with little or no reference to objects in nature, often reflecting the modern search for pure, ideal elements of design.

Show pictures to illustrate these definitions, e.g. Andy Warhol's Campbell Soup can—pop art; Victor Vasarely's repetitive circle in a square design—op art; Jackson Pollock's poured paint expressions—abstract art. (Sources: Faulkner, *Art Today*, 386–479; Fearing, *Art and the Creative Teacher*. 245, cover.)

Development

Now have students apply these considerations to Mexican art.

Q: What do you think when you hear the terms "modern Mexican art"? "modern Mexican painting"? Ask whether students have seen examples of recent modern Mexican painting (1950s–76) in books, media, museums, or in a firsthand visit to the country? If so, ask them to write a one-paragraph description of the type of painting(s) they recall, noting whether it reflected an identifiable style, value, ideal, cultural trend, or some unique element that gave it a distinctive accent. Follow with a brief directed discussion, pointing out that these descriptive paragraphs can be viewed as a tentative hypothesis on one aspect of recent Mexican painting worthy of testing for accuracy. Summarize the discussion by proposing a tentative hypothesis on the overall nature of recent Mexican painting that will be tested for accuracy. Refer to a wall chart (a posterboard on which the tentative hypothesis is written): ***"Recent modern Mexican painting (1950s–76) increasingly reflects international modern art trends blended with underlying indigenous, national accents—producing a varied, sophisticated Mexican international style quite unlike the nationalistic muralism of the early modern period (1910–50s)."***

Proceed to an examination of evidence (visual and verbal) to prove or disprove the hypothesis.

Present a prerecorded tape quoting noted Mexican art critic Jorge Alberto Manrique, "Contemporary Mexican Art," *The Art Gallery: The International Magazine of Art and Culture* (October–November 1975), 83–159:

> Mexico is not an island as far as recent modern painting production is concerned. Mexico does have characteristic features and an individual way of doing things. . . . Mexico participates in the contemporary art world... absorbing international trends but always accepting them by passing them through a filter of its own (national accents such as the emphasis on color an indigenous elements such as pre-Columbian design, symbolism, local concerns, values, etc.).
>
> It should be noted that although the nationalistic muralism continues to dazzle foreign observers and has some continuing government support . . . it is a dead letter in what might be called the informed world of Mexican art. The new and vigorous focus in Mexican painting stems from a rebellion by a few young painters in the mid 1950's who took issue with the smothering nationalism and limitations of muralism. This artistic rebellion appeared as a sudden stance for the freedom, depth, breadth of international art trends (and as a manifestation of the post World War II trend toward internationalization especially apparent in the economic programs initiated under President Miguel Alemán, 1946-52. (Source: Parkes, *A History of Mexico*, 428–30, 439–40). However, not until 1966 with the exhibition (Confrontación "66") at Mexico City's palace of Fine Arts did this new international movement receive official government acceptance and support as the new direction of Mexican painting. It was likewise the official death certificate to the previous domination by muralism. In view of the importance attached to this official sanction (stemming from the long historical tradition of patronage of the arts by the Spanish monarch and later the government), since 1966 the international directions of Mexican painting have been steadily increasing in variety, sophistication, and acceptance by widening sectors of the population.

Show five pictures (or opaque projections) of recent paintings by these leading (Mexican international) painters; Rufino Tamayo, José Luis Cuevas, Leonardo Nierman, Pedro Friedeberg, and Francisco Toledo (Sources: *Art Gallery*, 83–159; exhibition catalogs—for photos and texts—as noted in the source list).

Distribute Handout A for students to read through (an illustrated, detailed background guide to these five works). As students view each painting, ask them to look for evidence or lack of evidence for the following (written on the blackboard):

a) International art trends—pop, op, abstract art, etc.
b) Underlying indigenous, national accents—emphasis on color, pre-Columbian design, symbolism, local concerns, values, etc.

Through directed discussion, ask students to describe the blended Mexican-international style of each painting in light of the above two criteria.

Q: What (international or Mexican) value, ideal, or cultural trend does each work reflect? Does the painting appeal to you? Why?

Expand the focus on the variety and sophistication of the Mexican international style by showing ten additional pictures (or opaque projections) of paintings by these prominent artists: Pedro Coronel, Manuel Felguérez, Enrique Guzmán, Vicente Rojo, Fernando García Ponce, Juan Soriano, Brian Nissen, Francisco Corzas, Raúl Herrera, Kasuya Sakai (Source: *Art Gallery*, 83–159; exhibition catalogs in source list). Point out the broad range of new approaches; the depth of technical refinement; the freer plastic expressions in easel painting—quite unlike the sociopolitically oriented, representational approach of nationalist muralism. (Source: Finer, *Mexican Experience*, 41–47; Reed, *Mexican Muralists*.)

Conclusion

Verify student progress by asking perceptual and descriptive questions based on the lesson objectives to determine the accuracy (or inaccuracy) of the tentative hypothesis on the overall nature of recent Mexican painting.

1. On the basis of the evidence examined (visually and verbally), write a one-paragraph description of how you now perceive the variety and sophistication of recent modern Mexican painting (1950s-76). Include how it differs from the earlier nationalistic muralism (1910-1950s).
2. On the basis of your observation (as well as Handout A and the detailed discussion) of five works by leading Mexican painters, select the two examples you felt most clearly illustrated the blending of international art trends with underlying indigenous, national accents. Write one paragraph (for each work) describing in detail the blended elements.
3. On the basis of the evidence (or lack of it), assess the accuracy (or inaccuracy) of the tentative overall hypothesis.

Through directed discussion ask, How has your final assessment differed from your initial hypothesis?

Reinforcement

For an added dimension, play a prerecorded tape quoting Rufino Tamayo (the renowned Mexican international painter) speaking on the development and future directions of the Mexican international style. (Source: José Bermúdez, "A Word with Tamayo," *Americas*, August 1974, 33–38).

It has always been my hope and conviction that contemporary art in the Americas (Mexico in particular) would become increasingly more significant. Fortunately nationalism—especially the trend that began in Mexico as a result of the 1910 Revolution—is not as influential as it used to be. As you know, I was one of—I was the first who rebelled against the narrow approach of muralism's extreme nationalism. I have always believed that *art is the universal language to which we can add our own accents* (national and local). To want to create and maintain a totally nationalist art is now more impossible than ever because of international communications. This is certainly true in Mexico where national mural painting (in the style of Rivera, Orozco, Siqueiros) no longer predominates. . . . It had its day (made its contributions) and that day is now passed. . . . It taught graphic lessons in social history and political propaganda but also sacrificed many of the truly fundamental, deeper values of painting and plastic expression. To me the new international style of painting in Mexico is now concerned with these deeper aspects. . . . The future of this approach encompasses a very broad horizon with many directions to be explored. . . . The younger Mexican painters are aware of their underlying indigenous roots but are no longer confined within the bonds of a national style of expression. They are aware of all that goes on internationally and are very talented . . . the future of Mexican painting is in their hands.

Follow up with an open-ended, directed discussion, considering the wider implications of Tamayo's statements:

Q: Do you see this trend toward internationalism (with national or local accents) in the arts as a uniquely Mexican experience? Do you know of parallel developments in other countries? (in the Americas, Europe, Africa, Asia, etc.)

Distribute Handout B, noting highlights of these new directions in the visual arts of Latin America. (Source: Catlin and Grieder, *Art of Latin America Since Independence*, Yale–University of Texas Exhibition Catalog.) Now assign students to search for graphic examples (in magazines, newspapers, etc.) of recent paintings in other countries that parallel the new directions observed in Mexico to be brought to class for further discussion and bulletin board display.

Sources

Bermúdez, José Y. "A Word with Tamayo," *Americas* 8, no. 8 (August 1974): 33–38. (Excellent insights from Rufino Tamayo on the new directions of Mexican art.)

Catlin, Stanton L., and Terence Grieder. *Art of Latin America since Independence*. Yale–University of Texas Exhibition Catalog. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1966. (Outstanding text and quality visualizations presenting an overview of the development of painting in Latin America, 1800–1965, emphasizing international parallels.)

Exhibition Catalogs of Contemporary Mexican Painters. Galería Misrachi, Génova 20, Zona Rosa, México, D.F. (Tamayo, Cuevas, Friedeberg); Galería

Arvil, Hamburgo 241, Zona Rosa, Mexico, D.F. (Toledo); Galeriía Juan Martín, Amberes 17, Zona Rosa (Toledo, Felguérez. V. Rojo, García Ponce, Corzas, Sakai); (Inéz Amor's) Galería de Arte Mexicano, Milán 18, Zona Rosa, México, D.F. (Soriano, P. Coronel); Galería de Pintura Joven, Río Marne 18, México, D.F. (E. Guzmán); Galería Pecanins, Hamburgo 103, Zona Rosa, Mexico, D.F. (Herrera, Nissen); Galería Mer-Kup, Avenida Polanco 328, México, D.F. (Nierman, Cuevas); Perle Gallery, 1016 Madison Avenue, New York (Tamayo); B. Lewin Galleries, 266 N. Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, California (Nierman, Tamayo); Covo de Iongh, 519 Sul Ross, Houston, Texas (Friedeberg, Toledo); Museo de Arte Moderno, Reforma y Ghandi, Bosque de Chapultepec, México 5, D.F. (General Resource).

Faulkner, Ray, and Edwin Ziegfeld. *Art Today*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969. (Recent contemporary international art trends are treated in detail with clear illustrations of each.)

Fearing, Kelly; et al. *Art and the Creative Teacher*. Austin, Texas: Benson and Company, 1971. (Innovative, well-illustrated resource for concept development in art and social studies.)

Fernández, Justino. *A Guide to Mexican Art, from Its Beginnings to the Present*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969. (A background work on Mexican art with good visuals.)

Finer, Neal. *The Mexican Experience: Teacher's Guide and Resource Manual*. Austin, Texas: Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1975. (An illustrated series of lessons on Mexican art and architecture at the secondary level based on the *Key Ideas About Latin America*, Austin: University of Texas Latin American Curriculum Project, Bulletin 4, 1967, Clark Gill and William Conroy, directors.)

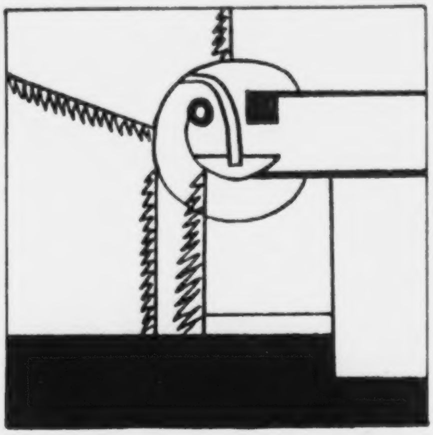
Manrique, Jorge Alberto. "Contemporary Mexican Art," *The Art Gallery: The International Magazine of Art and Culture* 19, no. 1 (October-November 1975): 83-159. (An essential, detailed overview of the recent Mexican international art scene with excellent photographic examples, produced by noted Mexican art critic and director of the University of Mexico's Instituto de Investigaciones Estéticas, Jorge Manrique.)

Parkes, Henry Bamford. *History of Mexico*. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1966 (Valuable historical reference.)

Reed, Alma. *The Mexican Muralists*. New York: Crown Publishers, 1960. (Well-illustrated reference for nationalistic aspects of muralism.)

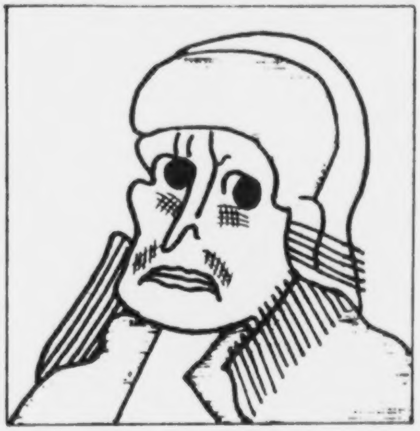
HANDOUT A

Guide to Five Recent Mexican Paintings: (a) international art trends, (b) underlying indigenous, national accents



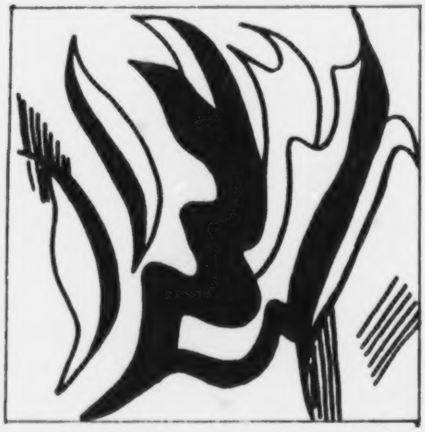
"Head" 1971

1. Rufino Tamayo—internationally acclaimed Mexican colorist who is frequently ranked with Picasso, Braque, etc.
(a) Note the abstract treatment of the head, broken into basic, pure geometric forms in keeping with the ideals of international cubism, similar to Braque.
(b) Observe the muted organic colors and vibrant design that Tamayo attributes to the natural light of his native Oaxaca and fresh forms from his Zapotec roots.



"Goya" 1969

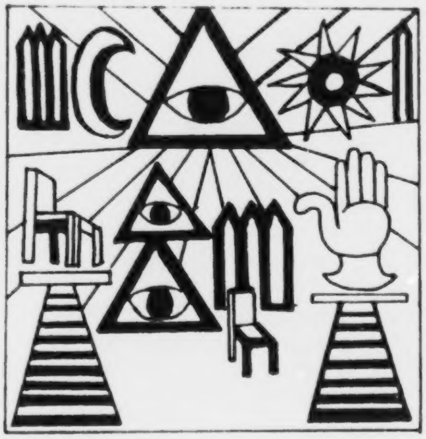
2. José Luis Cuevas—internationally recognized Mexican painter whose potential has been compared to Picasso.
(a) Note the use of interpretative line drawing, combining abstract and realistic elements (like Picasso).
(b) Observe the haunting eyes and morose mood of Goya reflecting Cuevas' own morose concern with human grotesqueness as seen in Mexico's lunatic asylums.



"Vuelo" 1970

3. Leonardo Nierman—known internationally for his fiery poured paintings and sleek sculpture.
(a) Note the sophisticated use of poured paint designs reflecting a dynamic freedom, reminiscent of the abstract expressionism of Jackson Pollock.
(b) Observe the rich blend and sharp contrast of fiery colors reflecting the wide variety and volcanic intensity of colors found in the Mexican ambience.

"Isabela Católica" 1971

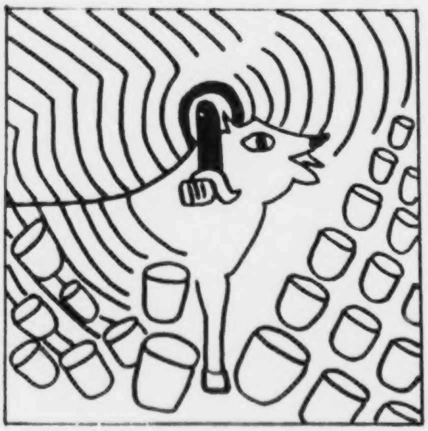


4. Pedro Friedeberg—internationally recognized innovative painter and designer of "hand-foot" furniture.

(a) Note the "pop-art" treatment of two types of chairs (the standard square commercial type of chair and the unique, hand-shaped, exotic type of chair reflecting two levels of contemporary values: manufactured crassness and natural organic beauty) reminiscent of Andy Warhol's reflection of popular values.

(b) Observe the use of pre-Columbian symbolism, e.g. sun and moon, pyramids, and eyes—clear references to underlying cultural foundations and indigenous values.

"Cow of the 1,000 Pails" 1974



5. Francisco Toledo—a young Mexican painter who is increasingly being recognized internationally. Tamayo has called Toledo "the best of the young Mexican painters who is becoming very important internationally."

(a) Note use of "op art" elements such as repeated spheres and undulating lines causing a retinal effect (as noted in the works of Victor Vasarely).

(b) Observe the use of earth tones characteristic of his Indian artistic roots. Also, observe the national, social comment on contemporary Mexican consumerism with its heavy demand on cattle for milk production to meet the needs of the exploding population trend.

HANDOUT B

Highlights of Trends in Latin American Visual Arts, 1950s–1976

Art trends in Latin America increasingly reflect the international art tendencies of innovation and experimentalism. Abstraction (particularly in painting) characterizes much of the plastic arts produced in Latin America since the 1950s. (It should be noted that this tendency toward abstraction began appearing well before the 1950s—with cubism in Argentina, German expressionism in Brazil, and modern experimentalism in Uruguay—at the same time that Mexican muralism was flourishing.) The recent visual arts reveal multiple levels of sophistication and great cultural diversity in Latin America; however, two common characteristics are apparent in the concern for (1) freer, universal modes of artistic expression, and (2) individualized accents (national or local).

These innovative and experimentalist tendencies are apparent in the abstract works of Torres García (constructivist) in Uruguay; Nemesio Antúnez (pop art), Echaurren Matta, and Jaime González in Chile; Armando Morales (informalist) in Nicaragua; Fernando de Szyszlo (expressionist) in Peru; Alejandro Obregón (cubist), Eduardo Ramírez Villamizar, and sculptor Edgar Negret in Colombia; designer Carlos Villanueva (integration of the arts), Narciso Debourg, Carlos Cruz Díez, Jesús Rafael Soto, and Alejandro Otero (op art, kinetic art) of Venezuela; Marta Boto, Antonio Asis, Luis Tomasello, García Rossi, and Julio Le Parc (op art), Carlos Squirru and Marta Minujín (pop art–social irony), Ernesto Deira, Rómulo Macció, Noé, del Vega, Seguí (neofigurist), Clorindo Testa and Mario Pucciarelli (informalist, free, intuitive abstractions), Sara Grillo, and Fernández Muro of Argentina; Carlos Mérida. and Rodolfo Abularach of Guatemala; printmaker Oswaldo Goeldi, designer Oscar Niemeyer, Manabu Mabe (informalist), engraver Livio Abramo, Wesley Lee (magic realism), and Marcello Grassman of Brazil; María Luisa Pacheco (informalist) in Bolivia; José Ignacio Bermúdez, Jorge Camacho, Wilfredo Lam of Cuba.

COMPARING TEXAS AND LATIN AMERICA

Karen Deane Moore

"Comparing Texas and Latin America" is arranged as a two-week teaching unit to be worked into the framework of seventh-year Texas history classes. It involves comparing the known Texas port city, Houston, with selected Latin American port cities. Three objectives are undertaken: (1) comparing the stereotyping of both Texans and Latin Americans; (2) deriving symbols for Houston and the Latin American cities; and (3) comparing and discussing statistical information in specified areas.

In addition to the unit, there are instructions on how to develop a slide presentation on stereotyping.

This unit may be worked into the Texas history curriculum at the teacher's discretion. Suggested teaching activities for each of the three objectives are included in the unit.

PREUNIT ASSUMPTIONS

1. The students have been made aware prior to undertaking this lesson of at least three reasons why a Texan should become acquainted with Latin America. The main idea here is that Latin America and the United States (Texas in particular) are important to each other politically, economically, and culturally.
2. Students have been introduced to Latin America and its geographic locations. This can be implemented by using transparencies such as "Western Hemisphere"[1] and "The Americas" and "Latin America—Its Regions."[2]
3. The meanings of the following words have been adequately defined for the students' purposes.
a. culture
b. stereotype
c. symbol
d. statistics
4. Prior correspondence has been initiated with governmental agencies such as consulates of the individual nations to receive statistical information and brochures and perhaps liaison established with schools or agencies that could help promote pen pal type relations.
Note: This effort might be coordinated with the language department.

Title

Houston, Texas, as Compared to Selected Latin American Cities. (The port cities of Porto Alegre, Brazil; Guayaquil, Ecuador; San Pedro Sula, Honduras; Veracruz, Mexico, were selected for this study.)

Rationale

An understanding of another culture may be acquired by comparing the attitudes and institutions of a known culture with an unknown culture

Grade Placement

Seven

Description

The unit is a comparative study of contemporary urban society. Generalities concerning family life with some statistical information will be required. The length of time for this unit is approximately two weeks.

Objectives

I. The student will be able to discuss stereotyping of the Texan and the Latin American.
II. The student will be able to determine symbols (1 or more) for the city.
III. The student will be able to compare and discuss general and statistical information in at least 10 of the following areas:

A. Overall population
B. Climate
C. Outstanding physical land features
D. Major industries
E. Average family income
F. Education
G. Family size
H. Leisure activities
I. Sports
J. Housing
K. Religion
L. Music
M. Popular foods
N. Art

I. Suggested approaches for Texan/Latin stereotyping (see instructions on p. XXX).

A.
1. Ask each student to draw a mental image of a "typical" Texan.
2. Ask each student to draw a mental image of a "typical" Latin American.
3. Collect and select a few of the drawings that are

particularly representative.

4. Ask the students of the selected drawings to explain why they portrayed the subject in that manner. (Usually the "typical" Texan drawings portray wealth, cowboy image, tallness, "redneck,"etc.; the "typical" Latin American is often portrayed as rural, poor, revolutionary, etc.)

5. The class should be polled to see how many of the native Texans fit the stereotype of the "typical" Texan.

6. "Ultimately this reaches the conclusion that the 'typical' Texan is mythical."

7. "Then submit to the class that perhaps the stereotype ascribed to the Latin American is also less than accurate."[3]

B. Overhead transparencies depicting stereotypes of Latin Americans and North Americans can be used either as an introduction or summary to stereotyping.[4]

II. Suggested approach for symbolizing the cities

A. Each student in the class is asked to write 5 symbols of Houston down on paper and told to be prepared to defend each choice.

B. The class is then divided into 5 groups of approximately four students per group.

C. Each group is asked to reach a consensus on 3 symbols for Houston.

D. A spokesperson for each group will present the group's reasoning for each symbol before the whole class.

E. All suggested symbols will be written on the board and the class then votes on the 3 choices that they feel best symbolize Houston. (Likely answers will be: Astrodome, Port of Houston, Space City, etc.)

F. Each of the 5 groups is assigned the task of determining at least 1 symbol for their particular Latin American city based on subsequent research.

III. Suggested approaches for comparing and discussing the general and statistical information.

A. Speculation: Each of the five groups is asked to compile a list of their mental image(s) of Latin America in the following categories:

1. Climate
2. Major industries
3. Family size
4. Education
5. Average family income
6. Leisure activities
7. Popular sports
8. Type of housing
9. Religion
10. Popular foods

The list will be kept by the group to be used as a comparative instrument after research has been completed.

B. From the resource materials (see bibliography) placed in the classroom, the five groups will research their respective cities. This gathering of information may also be based in part on the direct correspondence previously initiated with pen pals or governmental agencies.

C. The groups could be asked to compile a Latin American City Chart such as the following:

LATIN AMERICAN CITY CHART

City: Population:
Country: Population:
Region:
Outstanding Physical Features:
People:
and so on down the list.

D. Particularly creative students or ones who prefer to work alone or for extra credit might create a fictional correspondence between a 7th-year student in Houston and a child of comparable age in the Latin American city. The correspondence should evolve around day-to-day events, recreation, and so on. However, the account must be based on research and readings.

E. The particularly creative student might compose a short story based on a typical day or week in the life of a student in the Latin American city.

IV. Culminating activities

A. The entire class meets.

1. The Houston group submits its norms or findings in the various categories.

2. The Latin American city groups present their findings.

3. Inquiry questioning such as:

a. How do their lives differ from or resemble your own?

b. Do the Latin American cities differ from one another? How? Why?

c. Why do these differences and similarities exist?

B. Students are asked to view their original speculations about Latin America and to compile a new list that will demonstrate the learning that has taken place.

One observation that they should discover is that most Latin American cities differ also and that single statements can seldom be made for all of the cities.

Notes

1 Clark C. Gill, *Contemporary Inter-American Relations Instructional Unit No. 2*, LatinAmerican Curriculum Project (Austin: University of Texas Institute of Latin American Studies, 1968). Available from ERIC.
2 Clark C. Gill and William B. Conroy, *Geographic Setting and Historical Background Unit I*, Latin American Curriculum Project (Austin: University of Texas, 1967). Available from ERIC.
3 Cecil Robinson, *With the Ears of Strangers* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1963), pp. 31–66.
4 Latin American Studies Association, *It's the Image That Counts—Cartoon Masters for Latin American Study* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1976)

TEXAS/LATIN AMERICAN STEREOTYPING SLIDE PRESENTATION

Materials

1. Slides depicting scenes and/or people (children are the most effective)
2. Cassette tape of the song "Everything Is Beautiful"
3. Optional: hand out paper for students prenumbered to correlate with the slide numbers

Teacher Preparation

Locate pictures (preferably in color) of scenes and people of Latin America and/or Texas. Use these to prepare slides.

Instructions for Using

Indicate to the class that the slides depict either Texas or Latin America. Students are instructed to place a T beside the number if Texas is indicated on a particular slide and LA if Latin America is depicted.
The slides are shown while the music plays in the background.

When the slide presentation is completed, give the students the answers. The slides may be an actual mixture of Texas/Latin America or perhaps better all Latin America. Typically the students will discover that it often is difficult to determine the Texas scene from the Latin American

This should lead to a discussion/debriefing session.

1. What do the results indicate about Texas?
2. What do the results indicate about Latin America?
3. What generalization can we make about the population in Texas and throughout most of Latin America?
4. How do the slides affect the traditional mental stereotypes of both Texans and Latin Americans?

Suggested General Sources for Obtaining Slide Materials

Texas—Land of Contrast, from the Texas Highway Department

Land of Enchantment Series

Time-Life Series

Jesse F. Sargent, *Kids of Colombia* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1974.) Black/white photos.

Helen Schreider and Frank Schreider, *Exploring the Amazon* (Washington, DC: National Geographic Society, 1970.)

National Geographic magazine

Travel magazine

Texas Highways magazine

Brochures from travel bureaus (however, these tend to stress the exotic)

Many other suitable illustrated books may be available in the children's section of most public libraries.

Recording

Neil Sedaka, *Sedaka Live in Australia* (RCA) "Everything Is Beautiful."
See the bibliography at the end of this handbook for more sources.

LESSON I

THE SPANISH SETTLEMENT OF ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA

Monte Adkison

A short, concise history of Spanish colonization in Florida and the Spanish system of governing in the New World are related in the following lesson plans. Discussion questions and a bibliography are included for student and teacher utilization.

An often ignored chapter in our nation's history is its Spanish heritage. The oldest city in the United States, St. Augustine, Florida, was and perhaps remains the northeastern corner of Latin America. This Spanish settlement in the New World, founded between September 6 and 8, 1565, existed forty-two years before Jamestown and fifty-five years before Plymouth! Today the city is undergoing extensive restoration so that this Spanish heritage can be displayed with pride to the thousands of tourists who visit the city annually.

La Florida was discovered by Ponce de León in 1513. By 1561 there had been six unsuccessful attempts to establish a Spanish colony in the region, which at that time extended north to Newfoundland and'westward indefinitely from the Atlantic Ocean. Philip II, king of Spain, desired the colonization of Florida for several reasons: (1) he strongly believed that Florida belonged to Spain by right of discovery and papal decree, (2) French Huguenots (Protestants) had erected a fort and established a colony at Fort Caroline at the mouth of the present-day St. John's River in Florida and therefore "heretics" threatened to convert the Indians in the area; and (3) French pirates threatened the treasure-laden Spanish fleets en route from Vera Cruz to Spain that twice a year navigated the treacherous Bahama Channel and the Gulf Stream along the east coast of the Florida peninsula before finally crossing the Atlantic. A garrisoned settlement would provide protection for Spain's claims in the New World.

Unsuccessful attempts at Spanish colonization in Florida, thwarted by hurricanes or hostile Indians, pirates or the terrain, caused Philip II in 1561 to openly express doubt that Florida was any longer worth the expense and effort of colonization. Spain's most experienced naval commander, Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, agreed that Florida's low, sandy shoreline, lack of resources, and too-shallow harbors provided too many obstacles to permit successful settlement of a colony. Several factors caused both King Philip and Menéndez de Avilés to change their minds and attempt another settlement in Florida. Through diplomatic sources in the spring of 1565, the king learned that the famous French sea captain, Jean Ribault, was assembling a fleet to reinforce and expand the French settlement at Fort Caroline and angrily considered such an act a serious foreign encroachment upon Spanish territory. He determined to dispatch a Spanish fleet to destroy Fort Caroline and secure Florida once again for Spain. Menéndez de Avilés, who in 1554 had been appointed captain general of the Spanish treasure fleets, approached the king and asked for permission to search for his only son, who had not been found after a shipwreck off the coast of Florida in 1563. King Philip proposed his mission to Menéndez, who accepted. He was appointed *adelantado de la Florida*, governor of the entire province and official representative of the sovereign himself. The royal *asiento*, or contract, was presented to Menéndez on March 20, 1565; it guaranteed him a salary, in addition to a 165-square-mile tract of land in Florida and two pearl fisheries, in exchange for his missionary and military responsibility to the settlement.

Captain General Menéndez sailed from Cádiz, Spain, on June 29, 1565, and after being forced to return to port by severe storms finally set sail again several days later with an enlarged company that consisted of 1,504 soldiers, locksmiths, millers, priests, shoemakers, tanners, silversmiths, and farmers, some with wives and children. Menéndez intelligently recruited men skilled in farming and hunting because it was a lack of these skills that had caused earlier expeditions to have difficulty living off the land. In addition, Menéndez took several hundred head of livestock, along with seeds and plants.

Menéndez's fleet was scattered by a storm but, after a stop in Puerto Rico to replenish provisions, sailed again and first sighted land at Cape Canaveral, Florida, on August 28, St. Augustine's Day. Continuing along the shoreline farther north, the *adelantado* came upon a harbor where an Indian settlement existed named Seloy. Menéndez named the harbor St. Augustine because it was on that saint's feast day that he first sighted land. He then continued north up the Floridian east coast, where he sighted four French warships containing reinforcements for Fort Caroline. A brief battle followed and both sides retreated, without losses. Menéndez set his ships at full sail and on September 6 returned to the harbor of St. Augustine just off the Indian village of Seloy.

On September 8, 1565, the general came ashore, knelt, kissed a cross in a formal ceremony to claim St.

Augustine for Spain, and a solemn Mass was conducted. The Spaniards christened their landing site Nombre de Dios (name of God) and built a mission there, the first Christian mission to the North American Indian. Everyone present swore allegiance to Menéndez as governor of the province, and the Indians of Seloy were given a feast after the ceremony.

Menéndez's mind was still on the French, as he had seen the French fleet earlier fleeing south down the Florida coast. Reasoning that Fort Caroline would be weakly garrisoned, Menéndez, after a solemn mass on September 16, 1565, led five hundred men through drenched swamplands and flooded marshes to capture Fort Caroline. He had been right. When he arrived at the French fort, it was occupied by only 150 soldiers, some artisans, and women and children, as Ribault and his troops had taken all the able-bodied soldiers to attack St. Augustine. In less than an hour after Menéndez's men arrived, the fort was captured and 130 Huguenots were killed (women and children not in arms were spared), while not a single Spaniard was lost. Menéndez renamed the fort San Mateo, garrisoned it, and departed for St. Augustine.

On his return to St. Augustine, a group of friendly Indians informed Menéndez of many white men who could not ford Matanzas Inlet (south of St. Augustine) because it was too deep. Menéndez, under order of the king to "kill all heretics," left with forty men in that direction. Two hundred and eight Frenchmen were on shore and approached Menéndez and explained that they were shipwrecked, all members of Ribault's crew and all Calvinists. Eight who said they were Catholics were separated and sent to St. Augustine. The other two hundred men were marched to a line that the general drew on the sandy beach and slain there. This and the following episode explain how Matanzas, which means "slaughters," got its name.

Menéndez barely had time to return to St. Augustine when again Indians reported that a group of Christians was stranded at Matanzas Inlet. Menéndez returned there, where Jean Ribault and 350 men were on the beach. The Frenchmen offered money for their lives, but Menéndez refused. The men were brought before the Spaniards, ten at a time with their arms tied behind them, and asked if they were Catholics or Calvinists. All but sixteen were put to the knife. Those saved were fifers, drummers, trumpeters, and four who said they were Catholics. This occurred on October 12, 1565, thirteen days after the previous massacre. So the French threat was destroyed.

July 20, 1567 found Menéndez in Spain reporting to the king on the happenings in Florida. Menéndez had settled seven locations: three forts (St. Augustine, San Mateo, and San Felipe) and four villages (Ais, Tequesta, Carlos, and Tocobaga). Menéndez took six Indians with him back to Spain and presented them to the king, who was greatly pleased, as was the Council of the Indies. Menéndez was honored in Madrid and his hometown, Avilés, where he made a triumphant return. After 1567 Menéndez remained in service to the king in Spain but suffered from economic problems, personal as well as those of settlements in Florida, on which he spent his own fortune. He died in Spain on September 17, 1574, so poor that the conditions of his own will could not be fulfilled. His nephew, Pedro Menéndez Marques, ruled as governor until another governor was appointed the following year.

Thus the only Spanish settlement on the Eastern coast of the United States was established, and Florida remained under Spanish control for the next two centuries. The control was precarious and subjected to the dangers of foreign invasion, hostile Indians and pirates, poor soil, and economic problems.

The remainder of St. Augustine's early history reflected events in Europe. Spain's sea and colonial powers were declining while England's were growing. The success story of St. Augustine is best reflected by its missions and the conversion of Florida's Indians to Christianity. The Franciscans reached Florida in 1573 and by 1655 the Franciscan order had established thirty missions and claimed 26,000 converts. As a military outpost, St. Augustine was subjected to numerous raids and burned to the ground several times. In 1763, Britain and Spain signed a treaty that, in effect, traded Florida for Cuba and ended the first Spanish period in Florida. When the Spanish left, there were 3,046 residents at St. Augustine.

Sources and Suggested Reading

Dovell, J. E. *Florida—Historic, Dramatic, Contemporary*, vol. I. New York: Lewis Historical Publishing, 1952.

Gannon, Michael V. *The Cross in the Sand.* Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1966.

Tebeau, Dr. Charlton W., and Ruby Leach Carson. *Florida: From Indian Trail to Space_Age.* Delray Beach, FL: Southern Publishing Co., 1965.

Films: 16mm. "St. Augustine, The Oldest City," Oxford Films, 28 minutes.

Discussion Questions

1. Define *adelantado, asiento, matanza.*
2. For what reasons was Florida sought for the establishment of a Spanish colony?
3. Why had early attempts to colonize Florida failed?

4. What did Spain contribute to the New World?

5. Why did Menéndez's mission succeed?

6. Who were the Huguenots?

7. How does the story of St. Augustine compare to the historical settlement of the state in which you live?

8. Locate St. Augustine on a map of the United States. Describe what you think the oldest city in the U.S. is like.

9. Should we be proud of our nation's Spanish heritage? Explain your answer.

10. In the article, Menéndez is ordered by the king to "kill all heretics." Should people ever disobey an order when it goes against their moral principles?

LESSON II
LIFE IN SPANISH FLORIDA, 1565–1763, AT ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA

Monte Adkison

Spanish colonial life centered on the two officially sponsored institutions in Hispanic Florida, the missions and the *presidios*. The missions functioned to Christianize the Indians and secure the distant provinces of New Spain for the Mother Country; the presidios provided protection against attacks by Indians and foreigners.

The presidio at St. Augustine consisted of a fort, a garrison of soldiers, and families who developed farms extending outward from the military post. The importance of the fort itself was acknowledged after an attack on St. Augustine in 1668 by the British pirate Robert Searles. The looting of public buildings and homes and the slaying of sixty Spaniards resulted in the decision to build a new fort, and in 1672 construction began on the Castillo de San Marcos. Overlooking the harbor, the Castillo de San Marcos was constructed of *coquina*, a rock composed of seashells compressed over time. It was quarried on nearby Anastasia Island. Completion, accomplished by the labor of prisoners brought from Mexico and of Guale, Apalachee, and Timucuan Indians, took about twenty-four years, including the erection of the surrounding seawall. After the construction of this *castillo* the military became an especially dominant force in town life. The fort was never captured, despite numerous attacks, because cannonballs would merely stick in the *coquina* walls and could not penetrate or shatter them. The fort still stands, surrounded not only by a *coquina* wall but by a long and interesting history as well.

As early as 1573 a *cédula real* (royal letters patent) provided St. Augustine with the first community building and development plan in the United States. This *cédula* established the location of the town plaza in relation to the harbor, the layout of the streets, and the location of the cathedral and major buildings. The first hospital in the United States was built in St. Augustine in 1597. Prior to 1675 most of the houses and buildings were made of wood, which explains why they do not remain today. After 1600, tabby, a mixture of lime from burned oyster shells and sand, was used in some construction. After 1672, when the *coquina* quarries were functioning to build the Castillo de San Marcos, this stone gained popularity in house construction, and by the mid-1700s almost all public buildings and the walls around private residences were composed of *coquina* and have survived the centuries remarkably well.

After the crudely thatched palmetto huts of the mid-1500s, architecture in Spanish Florida evolved into a relatively simple style consisting of one or two stories of rectangular shape. The north walls were windowless to provide protection against the cold north winds. The other walls had small windows, each covered with an oiled cloth flap. Floors were always of packed earth or shells because dampness caused wood to rot quickly. Patios and gardens containing flowers, vines, vegetables, and shrubs brought from Spain faced south. The most conspicuous feature of the architecture was the overhanging balcony, which overlooked the narrow cobblestone streets below. Few fireplaces existed in the homes during the first Spanish period, and cooking was mostly done outside. Small tables that contained basins built into them held hot coals for warming individual rooms.

Spanish occupation introduced grape arbors, citrus fruits, and figs to the United States. Corn and tobacco were borrowed from the Indians, and the diet of the early colonists depended on what was available in the area, such as oysters, shrimp, and turtles, and an abundance of wild game. Livestock and seed grain were originally brought to St. Augustine from Spain as food supplies, but food shortages due to loss to the Indians or consumption by an increased prisoner population depleted this source of food early, forcing the Spanish to learn to live off the available food supply in the area.

The church was the social center of the community. Processions and parades were held for gubernatorial inaugurations and visitations of high church officials. The parish of St. Augustine has the earliest parish register, which consists of fifteen volumes with the records beginning January 1594. The oldest surviving U.S. family record is Solana. Today these records provide an excellent history of life in Spanish Florida through recorded marriages, births, baptisms, and deaths.

Fiestas centered on the town plaza. Children watched as men strummed guitars and people engaged in folk dances. The ladies wore bright-colored dresses, mantillas, tall combs in their hair, and lace shawls. Such fiestas still occur at St. Augustine during Easter Week in the narrow streets, which have retained their Spanish names.

Among early residents of St. Augustine were Negro slaves who were brought to Spanish Florida by Menéndez in the late 1500s, thus establishing the institution of slavery fifty years before it was introduced at Jamestown by the British. Slaves in Spanish Florida, however, were the property of the king and required to convert to Catholicism. The Negro population grew as slaves escaped form the Carolinas and Georgia in the 1700s and lived in villages outside of St. Augustine.

The local government of Spanish Florida followed the general pattern of New Spain and nominally was under the jurisdiction of the viceroy in Mexico City. However, St. Augustine, because of its geographical remoteness, was virtually independent. The governor, appointed by the king, held absolute power. His term was usually for six years, and a lieutenant governor, appointed by the governor, guarded the interests of the colony when the governor was not present. The governor appointed all of the major officials, which in Florida consisted of treasurer, accountant, and notary. In St. Augustine, Menéndez had established a *cabildo* or local representative body. Even though the members were appointed by the governor, the body did engage in self-government and appears to have represented the interests of the citizens in St. Augustine.

When the colony was ceded to the British in 1763, there were only slightly over 500 families living in Spanish Florida. Records show the Spanish left 3,096 residents—961 men, 798 women, and 1,337 children. Due to the surroundings of the tropical wilderness as well as the presence of hostile Indians and pirates, life in Spanish Florida was not easy. The activities of the men usually centered on their duties at some remote military outpost, and the women were kept busy with household chores, which primarily consisted of gathering and preparing food and making clothes and the beautiful laces the Spanish were famous for.

A unique adaptation to Spanish Florida was the result of brave Spanish citizens conquering the untamed Florida wilderness. Their survival ensured many valuable contributions to our American heritage. Today this sleepy Florida coastal town (population approximately 23,000) is trying to preserve its Spanish heritage through restoration projects and campaigns to increase cultural awareness.

Sources

Conly, Robert L. "St. Augustine, Nation's Oldest City, Turns 400." *National Geographic* 129, no. 2 (February 1966).

Dovell, J. E. *Florida—Historic, Dramatic, Contemporary.* New York: Lewis Historical Publishing Co.,1952.

Gannon, Michael V. *The Cross in the Sand.* Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1966.

Discussion Questions

1. Define *presidio, castillo, cédula, coquina,* mantilla, *cabildo.*
2. What two institutions in colonial Spanish Florida did activities center around?
3. What obstacles did the early Spanish settlers face?
4. How was Spanish Florida organized politically?
5. How did social organization in Spanish colonies differ from that of English colonies?
6. Because of the remoteness of the Florida col-

ony, many adaptations to the environment occurred. What were some examples of these?

7. How did life in Spanish Florida differ from other Spanish settlements in the western United States?

8. Are the Spanish contributions to our culture important? Explain your answer.

9. Suppose you are a businessman opening a new business in the area of St. Augustine. The local historical preservation board states that any new building constructed must conform to the Spanish style of architecture in the area. How would you feel about this? Explain your answer.

10. Is cultural awareness good? Explain your answer.

CONTRAST AND DIVERSITY WITHIN LATIN AMERICA: AN INQUIRY LESSON

Michael L. Tolbert

This inquiry lesson involves a slide presentation stressing the diversity found within Latin America. Through a carefully planned inquiry session, students will have the opportunity to discuss the contrasts in government, social institutions and classes, geography, international relations, etc., as well as provide input in designating topics to be studied. This may be adapted to any grade level and is interdisciplinary.

Introduction

One problem encountered in teaching about Latin America is its extreme diversity. In planning units, it is important to instill in students an early understanding of the differences and contrasts found in Latin America, from economic development and political systems to modes of dress and languages, without confusing students with an overabundance of facts and detailed explanations. One way to generate interest in and an awareness of Latin America's diversity, while also identifying some common themes to guide the unit, is to present a slide show, followed by an inquiry discussion.

This presentation offers two advantages: (1) a general introduction to Latin America, and (2) a method whereby teachers can single out certain themes or problems that can be developed into a Latin American study unit. Through a carefully planned inquiry discussion, the lesson provides opportunities for considerable student input in designating topics to be studied, as well as learning and teaching methods to be implemented. This introduction is designed to be used by teachers in a variety of disciplines and grade levels.

Objectives

1. To stimulate interest in Latin America through an understanding of:
   a. elements of diversity within the region
   b. common themes or problems that provide foci for the unit
2. To provide a means by which student interests can be considered in planning a unit on Latin America

Level/Subject Field

Elementary through secondary
Social Sstudies and language arts

Materials

1. 20–30 pairs of slides illustrating contrasts within Latin America
2. Two carousel projectors
3. Two screens or preferably a blank wall in the classroom that allows larger projections
4. Cassette recorder and a tape of Latin American music (optional)

Time

About one hour-long class period, depending on the grade level

Procedure

Slides and Inquiry Discussion

Note: Student responses will vary according to grade level and subject field.

1. Teacher should ask students what comes to mind when they hear the term "Latin America"

Possible responses (write on board in a column):
Mexican food
hot
sombrero
jungles
poverty
brown people
Amazon River
bananas
Spanish
tropical

2. Ask students to continue this line of thought while viewing the slides. Slides and music should be presented rapidly without comment or questions from the class.

3. Ask students to name, generally, some of the things they observed in the slides.

Possible responses (write on board in a column):
people
places
buildings
landscapes
clothes
towns

4. Ask students to name some of the specific differences that they observed in the slide pairs.

Possible responses (write on board in a column):
big cities, small towns
rich people, poor people
jungles, deserts
simple clothing, sophisticated dress
flatlands, mountains
black people, white people

5. Ask students what might account for these differences. This is the most difficult and detailed part of the inquiry lesson. Teachers might begin by guiding students toward the answers provided by a relief map of Latin America. This is a logical beginning, since many geographers believe the physical environment to be the most influential factor in determining land use systems, economic development, distribution of population, etc. These are ideas that complement this entire lesson and may be pursued in advanced social studies classes.

Possible responses (write on board in column):
terrain, elevation, natural vegetation, climate
land use, agriculture, trade relationships
economics, political systems
relative position with other continents and countries, especially Africa and the United States
international relations, history, colonization, population distribution and density
languages, culture, customs

6. The teacher may want to ask students to continue this line of thought by further differences or contrasts they would expect to find in Latin America (housing patterns, building materials, working hours, educational systems, slang, foods, religious practices, social and moral values, etc.)

7. The teacher should ask students if they think other areas of the world are as diverse. Why or why not? Is this a question that can be answered? Responses will depend on student familiarity with other areas. It is hoped that students will begin thinking about Latin America's relative isolation within the Southern Hemisphere, its interrelationshops culturally and historically with the rest of the world, the great latitudinal expanse of the region, etc.

8. The teacher should ask students what they might be interested in finding out about Latin America

Possible responses:

Why are some countries democratic and others ruled by dictators?

Why are some countries richer than others?

Why are some areas influenced by Indian cultures while others are not?

Why do the countries of Latin America sometimes not get along?

Why are several of the world's largest cities located here?

Why are some areas densely populated while others are not?

Why is Caribbean Spanish so different from Mexican or Andean Spanish?

Why are some countries friendly toward the United States while others are not?

Why is Portuguese instead of Spanish spoken in Brazil?

9. How might you go about investigating some of these questions? How would you like to spend the next few weeks? (Individualized investigations, research,

class projects, newpaper work, group work, reading, etc.)

10. The teacher might survey the major interests expressed by the class in both questions 8 and 9 in organizing the Latin American unit. Because class members have been involved from the beginning of the unit, it is hoped that they will enthusiastically support topics, themes, and problems to be covered, as well as activities discussed and decided on. The teacher can design lessons and teaching methods accordingly.

Slide Show Directions

The most direct method of presenting some of the diversity within Latin America is to organize a series of slide pairs that illustrate contrast. Using two carousel projectors, these pairs should be projected in juxtaposition and shown in rather quick succession. Examples of slide pairs that illustrate contrast are those that might illustrate, for example, different types of vegetation. This could be one slide of a jungle region and one of a desert cactus. Other pairs might show differences in housing (a *barrio* and modern suburb); economies (a farmer using a primitive digging tool and a modern factory); or ethnic groups (a native Indian and a sophisticated urbanite). Possibilities are numerous and subjects easy to locate.

The most accessible source for a variety of photographs of Latin America is the *National Geographic* magazine. Because many of the articles in this publication focus on unusual places, people, and events, many of the accompanying photographs are perfect for this lesson. A typical example is an article on Venezuela (August 1976) that gives attention to the cosmopolitan city of Caracas a well as the isolated Indians of the southern jungle regions. Issues that have articles dealing with Latin America are listed at the end of this section. School and public libraries usually carry this publication.

Most school districts have some sort of slide reproduction system in which photographs may be taken from books or magazines and turned into useful slides. However, if facilities are not available, education service centers, universities or colleges, and commercial photography studios can make slides. Also, slides can frequently be ordered from school supply companies that advertise in teaching journals in particular fields. Museums may also be helpful in ordering prepared slides, as are national tourist bureaus. These latter sources, however, are usually prohibitively expensive. Music may be added to the slide presentation. Music not only immediately attracts the attention of the students, but also helps in postponing questions or comments about the slides until the discussion period. Music that illustrates the many different modes, rhythms, and instruments found within Latin America can complement the theme of contrast illustrated by the paired slides.

Music may be obtained from the larger public libraries, which usually have record collections. Also, many radio stations broadcast Latin American music and may even be willing to lend albums for taping. Ideally, each pair of slides should be presented with a few bars of a different Latin American tune, but, if this is not possible, an accompanying tape of only a few selections will be almost as effective. Finally, if a variety of music is available, try to group them with the slides. For example, simple forms of music using primitive instruments could be matched with slides depicting underdevelopment. Bossa nova can accompany slides of Brazil. This extra effort will attract more students and further emphasize the theme of contrast within Latin America.

Sources

National Geographic issues with photographs of Latin America:

The Andes—January 1973; February 1971

Argentina—March 1975; March 1976; October 1980, August 1986

Brazil—November 1970; September 1971; October, November 1972; February 1975; November 1977; February 1978; January 1979; May 1980; March 1981; March 1982, January 1983; March 1987

The Caribbean—January 1970; February, December 1972; January, November 1975; November 1984

Central America—December 1975; April 1986

Chile—October 1973; July 1981

Colombia—August 1970

Costa Rica—July 1981

Cuba—January 1977; September 1979; February 1981

Dominican Republic—September, October 1977; December 1979

Guatemala—November 1974; June 1976; August 1981

Honduras—July 1981

Jamaica—December 1977; January 1985

Mexico—October 1968; May, June 1971; May, November 1973; May, June 1977; September 1980; May 1981; November 1982; August 1984; June, December 1985

Nicaragua—December 1985

Panama—March 1970; February 1978; January 1982

Paraguay—August 1982
Peru—March, December 1973; May 1975; September 1981; March, May 1982
Puerto Rico—March 1983
Suriname—August 1979
Trinidad—November 1971

LOOKING INTO MEXICAN CULTURE

María Gonzales
Toni Lepper
Helen Flórez Miller

This lesson is designed to help students gain an understanding of selected aspects of Mexican culture. It is for use in first-year Spanish or social studies in grades 7, 8, or 9. The lesson has been divided into three main topics: family life, religion, and attitudes. These, in turn, were subdivided into more specific areas. Each section of this lesson contains suggested activities and supplemental materials. The lesson has been planned so that it can be taught as a unit or in independent lessons.

RATIONALE

An understanding of some general characteristics of a given culture may be acquired through the presentation of different aspects of the life-styles, roles, attitudes, and values of that culture; thereby, a greater insight into and an understanding of one's own culture may be developed.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE UNIT OF STUDY

Upon completion of this study the student will be able to

1. understand the close-knit, extended structure of the Mexican family.
2. understand the kinship of *compadrazgo* (godparenthood).
3. understand the importance of the Catholic religion in Mexican daily life.
4. understand some attitudes and values of the Mexican people.

OUTLINE

I. Characteristics of Family Life
A. The extended family
B. *Compadrazgo* (godparenthood)
II. The Importance of the Catholic Religion in Daily Life .
A. The giving of saints' names and the observance of saints' days
B. Religious holidays
C. Christmas
D. Use of God's name in daily expressions
III. Attitudes and Values
A. *Machismo*
B. *Fatalismo* (fatalism)
C. Courtesy and formalism
D. *Refranes* —reflection of folk wisdom

CHARACTERISTICS OF FAMILY LIFE

The Extended Family

As in many of the other Latin American countries, one characteristic of life in Mexico is the extended family, with two or three generations living together. It is not uncommon in the Mexican home to find grandparents, unmarried or widowed aunts and uncles, and other relatives living together with the nuclear family (a married couple and their unmarried children).

Traditionally, the Mexican family is a very close-knit one wherein the family members feel great affection and loyalty for one another and live together in a spirit of interdependence, cooperation, and unity. Members of the extended family not only live together but also quite often work, socialize, and worship together as a unit.

Another characteristic of the middle- and upper-class Mexican family is the publicly dominant father, who is considered the head of the household. In this role he is traditionally responsible for the support of the family. The mother is highly regarded and is the real policymaker of the family. She generally remains in the home to run the house and rear the children. However, women are found occupying important positions within the public and private sectors.

When the children are growing up, they are taught to be obedient to and respectful of their parents; when they are grown they continue to demonstrate great respect for their parents and to feel very responsible for caring for them when they grow older. It is very rare to find elderly parents, or even aunts or uncles, living alone or being cared for in institutions.

Activities:

1. Hold a group discussion in which the students compare and contrast Mexican and U.S. family life.
2. Introduce or review the vocabulary for words

describing the family relationships.

3. By role playing, have the students act out a minidrama illustrating the dominant role of the father, the more passive role of the mother, and the respectful, obedient role of the children. Or, the minidrama could concern the customary respect for the elderly.

Materials

1. Pictures of a variety of Mexican families to be displayed in the class.
2. Vocabulary for words describing the family relationships.

Compadrazgo (Godparenthood)

In Mexico, as well as in other Latin American countries, family structure is enlarged by extending kinship status to include the godparents (*padrinos*) of the children. *Compadrazgo* (godparenthood), which was introduced by the Catholic church, is taken very seriously and is considered a sacred honor. Godparents are chosen for each child for such religious rites as baptism, communion, confirmation, and the *quinceañera* (a girl's celebration of her fifteenth birthday). However, the baptismal godparents are considered the most important. In case of the death of the parents, it has been the traditional role of the godparents to assume the responsibility for bringing up the godchild (*ahijado*) and guiding his or her religious, secular (nonreligious), and social development.

Generally, there is a very special and close relationship between a child's godparents (*padrinos*) and his or her parents (*padres*), and the use of the term "*compadre*" carries with it the connotation of love, respect, confidence, and kinship. Although the word *compadres* can be translated *co-parents*, the English language simply does not have *one* word that expresses this relationship adequately.

Activities

1. Introduce the *compadrazgo* (godparenthood) vocabulary by using the transparency or by handing out mimeographed sheets.
2. Use the kinship of *compadrazgo* transparency to further clarify the students' understanding of this relationship.
3. Have the students discuss and compare *compadrazgo* in Mexico and in the U.S.

Materials

1. Either the transparency or mimeographed copies of the *compadrazgo* vocabulary or both.
2. Either the transparency or mimeographed copies of the kinship of *compadrazgo* or both.

COMPADRAZGO (GODPARENTHOOD) VOCABULARY

el padrino—godfather
la madrina—godmother
los padrinos—godparents
el ahijado—godchild (m)
la ahijada—godchild (f)
el compadre—co-father (a child's father and godfather become *compadres* to each other).
la comadre—co-mother (a child's mother and godmother become *comadres* to each other).
los compadres—co-parents (there is no word in English to express the special relationship between a child's parents and godparents).

KINSHIP OF *COMPADRAZGO*

Transparency Instructions

The relationships between a child, parents, and godparents can be demonstrated in a series of steps by overlaying four transparencies that when viewed together will look like the following illustration.

1st transparency: Draw only the *HIJO(A)* box.

2nd transparency: Draw only the *PADRE, PADRES*, and *MADRE* boxes and their connecting lines. Place this on top of the first one.

3rd transparency: Draw the *PADRINO, PADRINOS, MADRINA*, and *AHIJADO(A)* boxes and their connecting lines. Place this on top of the others.

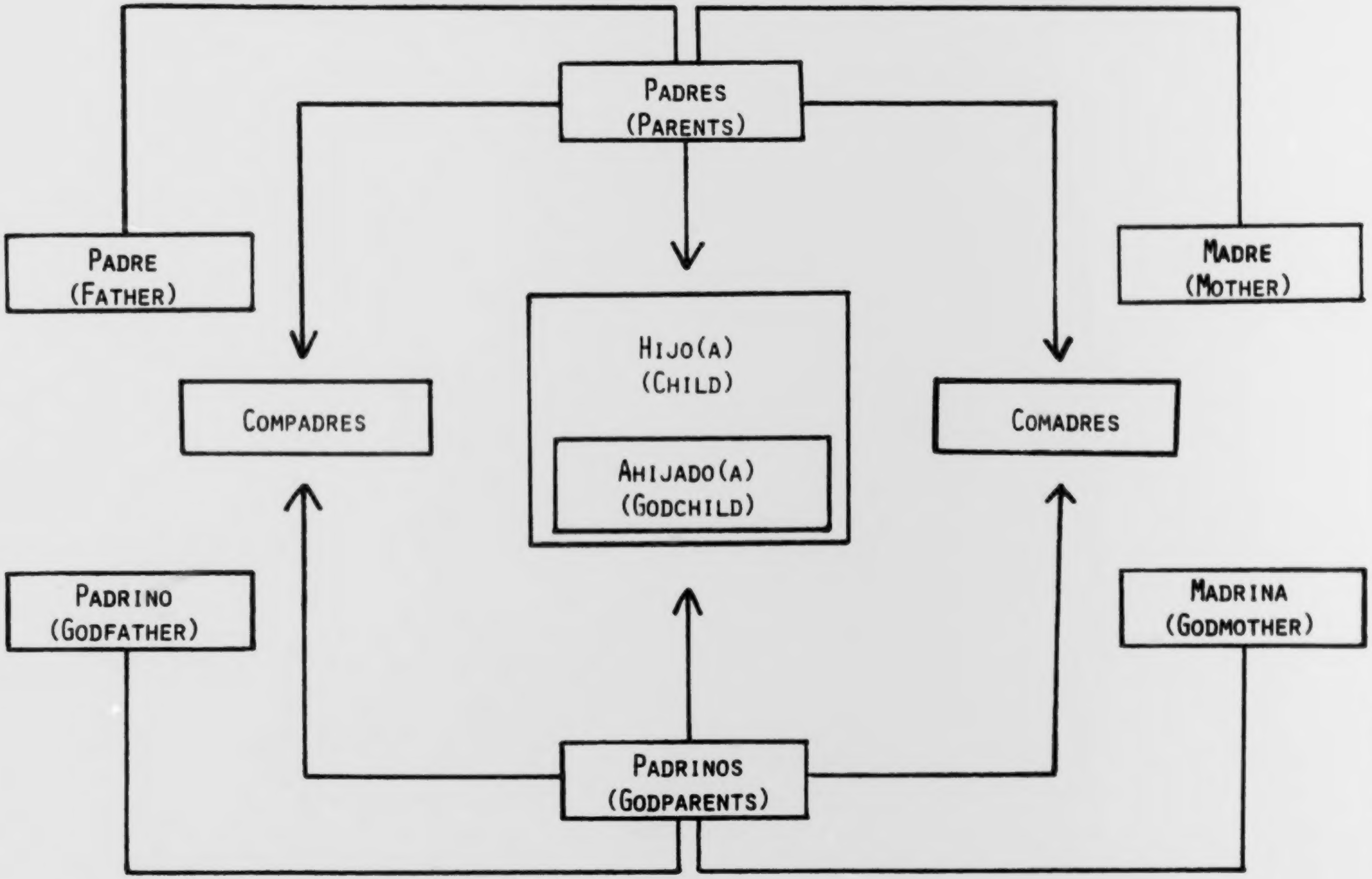
4th transparency: Draw the *COMPADRES* and *COMADRES* boxes and connecting lines.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CATHOLIC RELIGION IN DAILY LIFE

The Giving of Saints' Names and the Observance of Saints' Days

The importance of the Catholic religion in the daily life of the Mexican and other Latin American people is manifested in a number of ways. One of these is in the use of religious or sacred names and terms that they give to their children. The Catholic religion emphasizes the Biblical importance of the giving of a name, as when the Angel of the Lord told Mary that she was to name her son Jesus. Therefore, it has been traditional for Mexican parents to give each of their children the name of at least one saint. Moreover, in Mexico, as well as in other parts of Latin America, it is also common to use religious terms, such as *Trinidad* (Trinity); religious ob-

KINSHIP OF COMPADRAZGO


PADRES
(PARENTS)
PADRE
(FATHER)
MADRE
(MOTHER)
COMPADRES
HIJO(A)
(CHILD)
AHIJADO(A)
(GODCHILD)
COMADRES
PADRINO
(GODFATHER)
MADRINA
(GODMOTHER)
PADRINOS
(GODPARENTS)

jects, such as *rosario* (rosary); and religious events, such as *Concepción* (Conception), *Epifanio* (Epiphany), and *Asunción* (Ascension), as names. Some of the most commonly used saints' names are Jesús (Jesus), María Purísima (Purest Mary), San Antonio (St. Anthony), San Francisco (St. Francis), Santa Teresa (St. Theresa), San Pedro (St. Peter), Santa Juana (St. Joan), and San Diego (St. James). There are hundreds of others. One day in the year has been set aside to honor each of these saints. For example, St. John's Day is June 24; St. Lucy's, December 12; St. Stephen's, December 26; and St. Ann's, July 25. Quite often the child is given the name of the saint on whose day he or she is born. Other times, however, the child is given the name of a particularly beloved saint. The child is taught all about the life of the saint or the significance of the thing or event for which he or she has been named.

It is the custom in Mexico to attach more importance to one's saint's day than to one's birthday. Quite often one's birthday is acknowledged with congratulations and small, inexpensive gifts, while one's saint's day is the occasion for a festive gathering of family and friends. In Mexico one of the favorite ways of observing saints' days is by bringing a *gallo* (serenade) to the one being honored. Friends hire a *mariachi* (strolling musical group) and go to the person's house, usually some time between midnight and five A.M. There the musicians play outside the house while the friends sing the traditional song for this occasion, "Las mañanitas" (lit., "The Little Morning Song"). This song is so popular that it is also sung for birthdays, anniversaries, and other festivities.

Activities

1. Using a calendar printed in Spanish and having the saints' days, first check to see on whose day the presentation of this subject is being made and inform the class.
2. Conduct a survey in the class to see how many of the students have saints' names. Through class discussion find out how many of those with saints' names know something about their particular saint's life and work.
3. Give as a homework assignment the task of finding out in what religious denominations in the U.S. it is customary for a child to be given a saint's name. Have the students report their findings orally in class.
4. In a class discussion compare and contrast the custom of the giving of saints' names and the celebrating of saints' days in Mexico and in the U.S.
5. Hand out mimeographed copies of the words and the music for "Las mañanitas" to every class member on his or her birthday.

Materials

1. A Spanish calendar giving the saints' days.
2. A recording of "Las mañanitas."
3. Songsheets and music for "Las mañanitas." A copy of this may be found in *Nuestro Mundo* by Zenia Sacks da Silva, pp. 45–46.

Religious Holidays

In Mexico countless holidays are observed throughout the year in honor of either secular or religious events and people, and even the secular festivities usually include some religious aspect, such as attending mass.

In addition to the numerous important religious holidays celebrated throughout the country, each region, town, or village has its own special religious fetes. One reason for the tremendous number of these celebrations is that each town and each profession or occupation has its own special patron saint whom it honors. For example, the Holy Cross (*la Santa Cruz*) is the patron of masons as well as the patron of numerous villages and towns. The day for the observance of the Holy Cross is May 3. On this day there are religious services in the villages and towns, processions to the cemeteries, and feasts. In the large cities the construction workers set up crosses of flowers at their work sites and set off firecrackers at noon to commemorate this day.

Among the most important of the religious observances in Mexico are Holy Week (*la Semana Santa*), Christmas (*la Navidad* or *la Pascua*), and December 16, the Day of the Virgin of Guadalupe (*el Día de la Virgen de Guadalupe*), the patron saint of Mexico in particular and most other parts of Latin America. Some of the other important religious observances are the entire month of May, which is dedicated to the commemoration of the Ascension of Mary into Heaven; March 19, the Day of St. Joseph (*el Día de San José*), the patron saint of laborers; June 24, the Day of St. John the Baptist (*el Día de San Juan Bautista*); November 1, All Saints Day (*el Día de Todos los Santos*); and November 2, All Souls' Day (*el Día de los Muertos*).

Activities

1. Have the students list as many geographical place names as possible that bear the names of saints.
2. Read or tell the class "The Legend of the Virgin of Guadalupe" and discuss it.

Materials

1. "The Legend of the Virgin of Guadalupe" can be

found in *Information and Material to Teach Cultural Heritage of the Mexican Child,* by Education Service Center, Region XIII, p. 45, or in the encyclopedia.

Christmas (Navidad)

The traditional customs for observing the Christmas season in Mexico are very colorful, delightful, and elaborate. Christmas is called *Navidad*, which means nativity, or *la Pascua*, which is the Spanish for the Jewish Passover, since Christ was thought to have actually been born around the Passover season. For the Mexican people, December 16 marks the beginning of the celebration of the Christmas season. Starting on the night of the sixteenth and continuing through Christmas Eve (*la Nochebuena*), the Mexicans hold *posadas*.

The word *posada* in Spanish means inn or lodging, and the *posadas* are a ritualized reenactment of the search of Mary and Joseph for lodging in Bethlehem. Groups of families plan together when they will take turns hosting the festivities. At the prearranged time and place, the friends meet and form a procession, carrying lighted candles. Usually two people in the group are chosen to carry statues of Mary and Joseph; others are selected to sing the solo roles of Mary and Joseph, as well as the other parts of the very beautiful *posada* music. While singing, the group goes from house to house asking for lodging; and at each door they are turned away. Then the people inside each house where they have been refused lodging join the procession. Finally, at the prearranged home, the host inside tells them that there is room and invites them in, all, of course, in song. Once inside the home of the hosts for the evening, everyone enjoys a gay and lively party featuring, naturally, as almost all Mexican fiestas do, the breaking of a piñata.

The piñata is a hollow papier mâché figure of a star, an animal, or any of an infinite number of other shapes. Inside the more expensive piñatas are earthenware jars; others just have hollow space inside with openings at the top. The piñatas are filled with fruit, candies, nuts, and other goodies. The guests at the fiesta take turns tying to break the piñata, which is suspended from the ceiling. Each person who has a turn is blindfolded, turned around several times, and handed a long stick to swing at the piñata. Someone raises and lowers the piñata by pulling on the cord attached to it, thereby making it more difficult for anyone to hit it. When the piñata is finally broken, there is a mad scramble for all the goodies.

Another very important part of the celebration of Christmas and of the *posadas* themselves is the *nacimiento* (Nativity scene). Each family has its own *nacimiento*, which it displays proudly. Depending on the wealth of the family, the *nacimientos* range from very modest ones with small figures to quite elaborate, very expensive ones with large figures.

The *nacimiento* is much more than the simple Nativity scene that some families in the United States display in their homes. Actually, the *nacimientos* are replicas of entire miniature villages, with little hills, paths, trees, or shrubs (quite often using the cuttings from live plants), an infinite number and variety of animals, the shepherds, the Three Wise Men—Gaspar, Melchior, and Baltazar—on their camels, little buildings, townspeople, and, naturally, the figures of Mary, Joseph, and the Christ child. Families try to add figures to their *nacimientos* every year, and these *nacimientos* are treasured possessions that are handed down from generation to generation.

At each *posada* the figures of the Wise Men are moved a little closer to the manger. The figure of the Christ child is not put into the manger until Christmas Eve (*la Nochebuena*). On that night, after the *posada* procession has arrived at the prearranged house and the baby Jesus has been put in the *pesebre* (manger), it is customary for the entire group to attend Midnight Mass, called *la Misa del Gallo* (midnight mass). After mass they all return to the home of the hosts for a festive Christmas breakfast.

Traditionally, the time for the exchange of gifts among friends and families in Mexico has not been at Christmas but on January 6, the Day of the Wise Men (*el Día de los Reyes Magos*). However, due largely to the U.S. influence, this custom is changing, and many Mexican families now exchange gifts on Christmas Eve or on Christmas morning.

Activities

1. Hand out a mimeographed copy of a Christmas vocabulary. Pronounce and discuss it with the class.
2. Teach the students the Spanish words to the traditional Christmas carols sung in the United States. Spend a few minutes each class period during the last week or so before the Christmas holidays singing these carols in Spanish.
3. Using a tape and song sheets, teach the students at least one typically Spanish *villancico* (Christmas carol) that is sung in Mexico.
4. Read or tell the class the history of the introduction into the United States of the poinsettia, which in Mexico is called *la flor de nochebuena*.
5. Hand out a copy of the poinsettia to be colored by the students.
6. Tell the class the Christian legend about the

origin of *la flor de nochebuena.*

7. Play a tape recording or a record of the *posada* music.

8. Set up a *nacimiento* somewhere in the room or in a display window. If impossible, hand out a mimeographed sheet of it.

9. Have a class party during which the *posada* procession is acted out. Use the music and have the students hum or sing along with it. Have a group of students make a piñata (or possibly buy one), and break it as the climax of the party.

Materials

1. A Christmas vocabulary.
2. Spanish translations for traditional Christmas carols sung in the U.S.
3. A tape recording or a record of one or more Spanish *villancicos* (a tapescript of Christmas music, including the *posada* music, is available from the Foreign Language Section of the Texas Education Agency, Austin, Texas, tape #1758-30, *Música de Navidad*).
4. A tape recording or a record of *posada* music (see no. 3 above for source).
5. A copy of "La Flor de Nochebuena," which tells of the introduction into the United States of the poinsettia (see Gorena in bibliography).
6. A copy of the Christian legend about the origin of *la flor de nochebuena.*
7. A piñata, blindfold, stick, and long rope.
8. A *nacimiento.*
9. Copies of "Christmas in Mexico," showing a simple *nacimiento.* (see Gorena in Bibliography).
10. Copies of the poinsettia to be colored.

Use of God's Name in Daily Expressions

Another way that the importance of the Catholic religion in daily life is manifested in Mexico is in the widespread use of God's name in a variety of expressions asking his help in everyday situations. In Mexican culture, it is considered perfectly acceptable and appropriate to call on God for help in *any* predicament or problem in daily life. Some examples of these widely used expressions are "Dios mío" (My God), "Por Dios" (For God's sake or For the sake of God), "Vaya con Dios" (Go with God), "Válgame Dios" (Make me worthy, Lord), "Dios quiera" (God willing), and "Que Dios te bendiga" (God bless you).

Activities

1. Have the students compare the attitudes toward the use of God's name in the Mexican culture and in the English-speaking culture of the United States. This can be done either as a written assignment or as a class discussion.

2. Read the English translation of the story "Una carta a Dios" ("A Letter to God") to the class. In either a written assignment or a class discussion, ask the students to tell their reaction to Lencho and why. More points to have them discuss are the following: If you had been the postmaster, what would *you* have done after reading Lencho's first letter? How would *you* have reacted to Lencho's second letter? What does Lencho's second letter indicate to you about his relationship with God?

Materials

1. The translation of the story "Una carta a Dios" ("A Letter to God").

A LETTER TO GOD

Gregorio López y Fuentes

The house—the only one in the valley—was atop a low hill. From there one could see the river and, close to the corral, the ripened corn field with the flowers of the bean plants that always promised a good harvest.

The only thing that the land needed was rain, or at least a strong shower. During the morning, Lencho—who knew the field well—had done nothing more than examine the sky towards the northeast.

"We are going to have rain for sure."

And his wife, who was preparing the meal, answered, "May God grant it so."

The older children were working in the field, while the younger ones were playing close to the house, until the woman called them: "Come and eat."

It was during the dinner when, as Lencho had said, big raindrops began to fall. Toward the northeast, big mountains of clouds could be seen advancing. The air was fresh and sweet.

The man walked out to the corral searching for something in order to allow himself the pleasure of feeling the rain fall on him, and upon returning to the house, he exclaimed: "These are not drops of water falling from the sky; they are new coins; the big drops are ten *centavos* and the small ones are five *centavos.*"

And with great satisfaction he looked at the field of ripened corn with the bean flowers all covered by the transparent curtain of rain. But suddenly a strong wind began to blow, and with the drops of water very large hail began to fall that really looked like new silver coins. The boys, exposing themselves to the rain, ran to gather the frozen pearls.

"That is indeed very bad!" exclaimed the worried man. "I hope everything passes soon."

It did not pass quickly. For an hour, hail fell on the house, the orchard, the forest, the corn, and all the valley. The field was white, as if covered with salt. The trees, without a leaf. The corn, destroyed. The beans, without a flower. Lencho, with his soul filled with sadness. After the storm passed, Lencho stood in the middle of the field and said to his children:

"A cloud of locusts would have left more than this. . . . The hail has left nothing; we shall have neither corn nor beans this year . . . "

The night was filled with grief.

"All our work wasted."

"And no one to help us."

"This year we shall suffer from hunger."

But in the heart of all those who lived in that lone house in the middle of the valley, there was one hope: the help of God.

"Do not worry so much, although the damage is great. Remember that no one dies of hunger!"

"That is what they say: no one dies of hunger..."

And during the night, Lencho thought much on his only hope: the help of God, whose eyes, according to what was told to him, saw it all, even what was in one's mind.

Lencho was an uneducated man, working like a beast in the fields, but nevertheless he knew how to write. The following Sunday, at daybreak, after having reassured himself that there is someone who protects us, he began to write a letter, which he himself would take to town and mail.

It was nothing more than a letter to God.

"God," he wrote, "if you do not help me, my family will go hungry this year. I need one hundred *pesos* in order to plant again and live until the new harvest comes, because the hail . . . "

He wrote "to God" on the envelope, placed the letter in it, and still worried, went to town. At the post office, he stamped the letter and put it in the mail box.

An employee, a mailman who also helped in the office, came to his boss laughing very much, and showed him the letter addressed to God. Never in his career as a mailman had he known that address. The postmaster, fat and kind, also began to laugh, but very soon he became serious and, while tapping on the table with the letter, commented:

"What faith! I wish I had the faith of the man who wrote this letter! To believe as he believes! To wait with confidence as he knows how to wait! To begin correspondence with God."

And in order not to disillusion that treasure of faith that had been discovered through a letter that could not be delivered, the postmaster had an idea: to answer the letter. But when he opened it, it was evident that in order to answer it, he needed something more than good will, ink, and paper. But he continued with determination: he asked his employee for money, he himself gave part of his salary, and several of his friends had to give something for "a charitable cause."

It was impossible for the postmaster to collect one hundred pesos for Lencho, and he was able to send to the peasant only a little more than half of the amount requested. He placed the bills in an envelope addressed to Lencho and with them a letter that was signed simply: God.

The following Sunday, Lencho came to ask, earlier than usual, if there was a letter for him. It was the same mailman who handed him the letter, while the postmaster, with the joyous look of a man who has done a good deed, looked through his office door.

Lencho did not show the least surprise upon seeing the bills—so great was his confidence—but became angry upon counting the money. God could not have made a mistake, nor could he deny what Lencho had asked for!

Immediately Lencho approached the small window and asked for paper and ink. At a writing table he began to write, wrinkling his forehead because of the trouble he had in expressing his ideas. Upon finishing he asked for a stamp, moistened it with his tongue, and, with a bang of his fist, sealed it.

As soon as the letter fell in the mailbox, the postmaster opened it. It said:

"God: Of the money that I asked you for, only sixty pesos reached my hands. Please send the rest, as I need them very much; but do not send it through the post office, because the employees are big thieves—Lencho."

translated by
María Graciela Gonzalez
Helen Flórez Miller

(Story may be found in Robert Lado et al., *Galería Hispánica* [Dallas: McGraw-Hill, 1965], pp.2–5.)

ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Machismo

Although it is difficult to make valid generalizations about people, certain national characteristics are sometimes readily seen in a particular culture. For example, although the men of Mexico certainly do not have a monopoly on *machismo*, it is one of their predominant characteristics. *Machismo* can be defined as the cult of male superiority. Since *machismo* is one of the roles that the Latin American culture traditionally imposes upon men, many Mexican males consciously or unconsciously feel that they must live up to this image. Failure to do so would be considered a sign of weakness, something no self-respecting *macho* could bear.

The concepts of honor and self-pride are two of the most important ingredients of *machismo*. The Mexican male typically prides himself on being very domineering, infallible, able to support his family, and very capable of defending both himself and the honor of his family. In addition, he gives the impression of being fearless, self-confident, cocky, and unhesitant about making decisions, regardless of the outcome. Often the *macho*'s manhood is measured by the number of female hearts he can break and in marriage by the number of children he can father. The *macho* is not afraid to show his feelings when it comes to love, tenderness, or an appreciation of beauty. These sentiments he reveals with tears, *abrazos* (traditional Mexican-style hugs), extravagant compliments, poetry, and love songs. While in some cultures these manifestations of sentiment are considered "sissy," in Mexico they are the mark of a true *macho*.

Activities

1. As a written assignment, have students select their favorite "superhero" from U.S. movies or TV. Then have them explain their choice. Have them list what they consider their superheroes' strengths and weaknesses. Later, in an oral group discussion, compare and contrast the characteristics of the various "superheroes" and the characteristics of *machismo*.

2. In a class discussion, have the students analyze the characteristics of certain male U.S. TV characters with regard to their *machismo* of lack of it. The following might serve as good examples: Heathcliff Huxtable in *The Cosby Show*, Steven Keaton on *Family Ties;* Sam on *Cheers*; Harvey Lacey on *Cagney and Lacey*; and Arnie Becker, the divorce lawyer on *L.A. Law*.

Materials

None

Fatalismo (Fatalism)

Another characteristic attitude that is found in Mexican culture is fatalism, both as it affects daily life and in the attitude toward death. Fatalism can be defined as a passive acceptance of whatever happens to one because of the belief that there is nothing that the individual can do to change his or her fate or destiny. Both the attitudes of the native Indians of Mexico and the influence of the Catholic religion brought by the Spaniards blended with one another and contributed to this *fatalismo*. The Indians, in whose culture religion was so important, found life a hard, cruel struggle for survival. They believed themselves to be at the mercy of their gods. And, within the framework of their own societies, there was nothing that they could do to change their lot in life. The Catholic religion taught that whatever misfortunes or tragedies came their way had been sent by God and that it was their Christian duty to bear them stoically and with resignation. They considered death a blessed release from this "vale of tears" and looked forward to their spiritual life in heaven.

The stoic and fatalistic Mexican outlook on life is expressed in many of their commonly used expressions. One such example is "*Así es la vida*" (That's life), accompanied by a shrug of the shoulders. Another often heard expression is "*No hay remedio*" (There's nothing that can be done, there's no hope, or It can't be helped). Still another is "*Que será, será*" (What will be, will be).

Activities

1. Have the students see how many sayings or expressions of a fatalistic attitude they can think of that are widely used in the United States. List them on the board.

2. In a class discussion, compare and contrast the attitude of fatalism in Mexico and in the United States.

Materials

None.

Courtesy and Formalism

Another way of learning a great deal about the culture of a people is through their social rituals, which are re-enacted countless times a day in everyday life. A study of these social rituals in Mexico reveals that courtesy and ritualism are a very important part of the Mexican culture. The importance of treating one's fellow man with great politeness and thoughtfulness can be seen very vividly in some of the everyday expressions that are included in the social graces.

For example, it is considered a breach of etiquette to pass between two people who are talking, or to walk right in front of someone, or to leave a group of which you are a part without saying, "*Con permiso*" (With your permission). The equally polite and customary response to this is always, "*Usted lo tiene*" (You have it).

When a guest is received into someone's home, it is customary for the host to tell him warmly, "*Aquí tiene* *usted su casa*" (My house is your house). Another widely used expression at such times is, "*Está en su casa*" (You are in your home or Make yourself comfortable).

When someone asks a favor of another person, he will quite often begin by saying either "*Tenga usted la bondad de . . .* " (Be so kind as to . . .) or "*Hágame el favor de. . .* " (Do me the favor of . . .).

When someone offers to do something for another person, the person who receives the offer indicates that he or she doesn't want to be a bother by saying, "*No se moleste*" (Don't trouble yourself). The gracious response to this generally, "*No es ninguna molestia*" (It's no bother at all).

When a person leaves for an outing, a party, to go to the show, etc., the person whom he or she is leaving will generally say, "*Que se divierta*" (literally, May you have a good time). Three other expressions commonly used to say goodby when someone leaves are, "*Que le vaya bien*" (May all go well with you), "*Vaya con Dios*" (Go with God), and "*Que Dios le bendiga*" (May God bless you).

Before someone goes to eat, he or she is usually wished "*Buen provecho*," meaning roughly, "I hope you enjoy your meal."

To show agreement with whatever someone has said, the Mexican generally says "*Sí, cómo no!*" or "*Claro que sí!*" both of which mean "Of course!" These two phrases are also used to indicate a positive response to a request.

Great importance is attached to the observance of these social niceties and indicate a ritualistic formality that is found in daily life. The failure to observe these formalities or niceties is considered to be a terrible display of bad manners and leads to the conclusion that the guilty party is very "*mal educado*" (poorly educated).

Activities

1. In class discussion compare and contrast the Spanish phrases that are part of the social graces with those used in English.
2. Have the students make up short dialogues in which they act out the use of these phrases in Spanish.
3. In a group discussion, compare and contrast the cultural similarities and differences as expressed in these polite expressions.

Materials

1. Mimeographed lists in Spanish of the most common "*fórmulas de cortesía*"(courteous expressions) that are used in everyday speech in Mexico.

Refranes—Reflection of Folk Wisdom

Just as knowledge and understanding of a people's ritualistic expressions of the social graces help one to understand their culture, so also does a knowledge and understanding of their sayings and proverbs (*refranes*). Much of the folk wisdom of a country or a culture is to be found in these expressions of their collective philosophy. One characteristic of the everyday speech of the Mexican people is the profusion of *refranes* that they use. In fact, it can be said that the *mexicanos* talk in sayings. Many of these sayings are Biblical, and a great number of them come from the renowned Spanish novel of the seventeenth century, *Don Quixote de la Mancha*, by Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. Still other *refranes* are of Mexican origin.

The following are some of the most commonly used *refranes* and their literal translations (wherever possible) or their English equivalents or both:

•Pájaro en mano vale cien volando. A bird in the hand is worth one hundred flying. (A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.)

•Quien mucho duerme, poco aprende. He who sleeps a lot learns little.

•En boca cerrada no entran moscas. Flies don't enter a closed mouth.

•Aunque el mono se vista de seda, mono se queda. Although the monkey may dress himself in silk, a monkey he remains.

•Antes que te cases, mira lo que haces. Before you marry, look what you're doing. (Look before you leap.)

•A quien madruga, Dios le ayuda. God helps him who gets up early.

•Más vale solo que mal acompañado. It's better to be alone than in bad company.

•Del dicho al hecho hay mucho trecho. From the said to the done, there's a great gap. (It's easier said than done.)

•Hasta la gallina no pone en lunes. Not even the hen lays on Monday.

•El gato maullador nunca es buen cazador. The meowing cat is never a good hunter.

•En la tierra del ciego el tuerto es rey. In the land of the blind, the one-eyed man is king.

•Perro que ladra no muerde. His bark is worse than his bite.

•Vístame despacio que estoy de prisa. Dress me slowly because I'm in a hurry. (Haste makes waste.)

•No dejes para mañana lo que puedas hacer hoy. Don't leave for tomorrow what you can do today.

•Si le viene el saco, póngaselo. If the coat fits, put it on (wear it).

•Más moscas se cazan con miel que con hiel. More flies are caught with honey than with vinegar.

•Amor con amor se paga. Love is repaid with love.

•Dime con quien andas y te diré quien eres. Tell me who you walk (go around) with, and I'll tell you who you are. (Birds of a feather flock together.)

•Tanto vale cuanto sabes. You are worth as much as you know.

•El hombre propone y Dios dispone. Man proposes and God disposes.

•Algo es algo dijo el calvo cuando se tocaba un pelo. Something is something said the bald man when he felt one hair. (Something is better than nothing.)

•El tiempo es oro. Time is gold.

•Secreto de dos, secreto de Dios; secreto de tres, de todos es. A secret between two is God's secret; a secret between three is everybody's secret.

•Sólo el que no monta no cae. Only he who doesn't mount never falls. (Nothing ventured, nothing gained.)

•Ver es creer. Seeing is believing.

•A caballo regalado, no se le mire los dientes. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth.

•Entre la mano y la boca se pierde la sopa. Between the hand and the mouth one loses the soup. (There's many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip.)

•Más vale tarde que nunca. Better late than never.

•No es oro todo lo que reluce. All that glitters is not gold.

Activities

1. Hand out mimeographed sheets on *refranes*. Go over them with the class and discuss them.
2. Have the students make a poster to illustrate a *refrán* of their choice to be displayed in the room.
3. Have students try to memorize and to use the *refranes* whenever appropriate in class and among their friends. For example, when a student enters the room late, "*Más vale tarde que nunca.*"

Materials

1. Mimeographed sheets on *refranes*.

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USING THE CONCEPT OF CULTURE TO INTRODUCE LATIN AMERICA INTO THE CLASSROOM

Edward Glab, Jr.

The following lesson was prepared to help alleviate the frustrations encountered when teaching culture. The objectives are to combat stereotyping and to dispel the egocentric aura intrinsic in most children by consistently stressing that diversity does not denote inferiority.

Rationale and Introduction

Although "culture," like "politics," is a label that seems to defy definition, most anthropologists would accept the general definition of culture as "the way of life of a people . . . the sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes, and material things" (Hall, *The Silent Language*, p. 21). Beyond this general definition, there is less agreement among anthropologists concerning precisely what the substance of culture is. However, my purpose here is not to define culture precisely, but rather to provide you, the teachers, with a useful approach for helping you to introduce to your students something about the way of life of the Latin American people. The focus on "culture" serves to underscore the importance of focusing our attention on the diverse *peoples* of Latin America and the fact that they represent ways of life different from our own.

Admittedly, teaching about any foreign culture is a difficult task, especially because most people are very ethnocentric in their attitudes toward other cultures. Because the way of life of a foreign people often appears "strange," "puzzling," and "backward," the first and most important step in presenting Latin America to your students is to help them become more tolerant and receptive of diverse patterns of behavior, belief systems, and values. This is not to suggest that students be encouraged to adopt the latter, but merely that they be taught the fundamental idea that the substance of culture is subjectively determined. That is, there is no objective, universally accepted standard by which the "correctness" of a given culture's values, beliefs, and patterns of behavior with regard to table manners, love, politics, religion, and any number of other things can be judged. We can judge one way of life such as our own against another, but such judgments are based more on our own culturally conditioned view of reality than on any objective standards.

For example, imagine reality as being divided into two parts: (1) that which is associated with correct sensory perception and the objectively discernible properties of a thing, and (2) the values, beliefs, and meaning associated with it. We might all agree in the first instance that a cow is a mammal, has four legs, two eyes, etc. But we might disagree in the second instance on whether a cow is to be worshiped as somebody's mother or slaughtered and cut into steaks. We can all agree on the purely physical description of a puppy, but we might disagree over whether it is to be eaten as a delicacy (as it is in some parts of Asia) or kept as a house pet (as in the United States). Thus, while we might agree on our view of a cow from a strictly descriptive point of view, the values and beliefs associated with that physical object may vary radically, causing us to classify people who eat puppies as cruel and those who worship cows as superstitious.

What we are doing when we refer to other cultural patterns as strange or superstitious is subjectively interpreting a concrete reality. Certain religious groups worship cows (concrete reality); those religious groups are therefore superstitious (subjective interpretation of reality). This tendency to judge patterns of behavior as good or bad according to how closely they conform to our own patterns of behavior, values, and beliefs results in ethnocentric (i.e., our way is better than your way) conclusions that create serious obstacles to communicating effectively with, understanding, and appreciating another culture. To illustrate how ethnocentrism can create obstacles to understanding and communication in terms that a student would readily understand, imagine the confusion that would arise if one were to judge how well someone played the game of football by applying the rules of baseball! By the same token, we cannot hope to understand a culture different from our own if we insist on praising or condemning it according to how well it conforms to or diverges from our own cultural "rules of the game."

Concept

CULTURE—Latin American cultures will often reflect values, beliefs, and patterns of behavior very different from our own.

Objective

1. To introduce Latin American cultures.

2. To promote tolerance and receptivity of diverse patterns of behavior, belief, systems, and values that students will encounter in studying about Latin America.

Strategy

Discuss with students the idea that almost all judgments concerning values, beliefs, and patterns of behavior of cultures different from our own are subjective and the result of our own culturally conditioned view of reality.

1. Begin by asking your students to define culture. Provide them with Hall's definition (see Resources).

2. Ask the students what subjective means. What does it mean to be objective? How can we tell the difference between the two concepts?

3. Ask your students to define some of the typical patterns of behavior, beliefs, and values of the United States. What sorts of things were they able to agree on?

4. Discuss with your students the meanings of the following aphorisms:

a. To each his own.
b. There's more than one way to skin a cat.
c. Beauty is in the eye of the beholder.
d. Do your own thing.
e. One person's junk is another person's treasure.
f. One person's pain is another person's pleasure.
g. We can complain because rose bushes have thorns or rejoice because thorn bushes have roses.
h. When in Rome do as the Romans do.
i. Accept me as I am; only then will we discover each other.

You will want to raise some of the following questions with your students: Is there more than one way to skin a cat? Is there any objective standard concerning what is beautiful? Can the students think of any examples to illustrate how one person's junk or pain could be another person's treasure or pleasure? What is the principle that underlies the "Do your own thing" expression?

The important thing to get across with the above discussion is the concept of subjectivity—that there may be more than one right way to do something (even within the limited confines of a classroom) and that there is often no objective standard by which to judge whether something is pain, treasure, or beauty.

5. After exploring the assumptions implicit in the above aphorisms, challenge your students' ability to be objective by discussing customs that are particularly alien to them, such as the idea of eating puppies as a delicacy.

a. Explain that eating puppies is a common practice in Asia and ask them why they suppose the idea of eating a puppy appears cruel to them.

b. Ask the students how the Asians who eat puppies would view us if they found out that pets in the United States generally eat better than the people in many countries.

c. If we think that eating puppies is cruel, what must the people of India think when they discover that we slaughter and eat cattle, which they regard as sacred? Would the Indian view us as cruel and sacrilegious for slaughtering cattle just as we view the Asians as cruel for eating a puppy?

d. How might a foreign student from Chile react on finding out that some Texans like to lunch on rattlesnake meat?

e. Mention the fact that in Peru the guinea pig is considered a delicacy. How would you react if you were served a whole roasted guinea pig (they resemble a cooked rat)?

f. How would you react if someone served you a soup made out of turtle blood, which is a favorite in Eastern Europe, or chicken blood, which is a favorite in China?

g. How would you feel if you invited a group of Mexicans to your home to a party scheduled to begin at 8:00 P.M. and no one showed until 9:30 P.M.?

The point to be brought out in this discussion is the idea of cultural conditioning; that is, we react negatively to the idea of eating a puppy or become insulted if no one arrives at our dinner party until 9:30 P.M. because we have been culturally conditioned to regard puppies as house pets and time as a commodity to be bought, sold, lost, or gained, a concept of time alien to many cultures.

Predicted Outcomes

Through your discussion of the aphorisms and unusual (to us) customs of other cultures, your students should begin to grasp the twin points concerning the subjective nature of our judgments and the way in which our attitudes and values are culturally conditioned. Once your students have grasped these twin points, they will be better prepared to study the many varied and interesting aspects of Latin American culture.

Further Teaching Suggestions

A good approach to discussing the twin ideas concerning the subjective nature of our judgments and the way in which our attitudes and values are culturally conditioned is through a discussion of the concept of stereotypes, using examples from Latin America and the United States. A useful publication in this regard is *It's the Image That Counts: Cartoon Masters for Latin American Study* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1976). It contains 19 cartoon masters illustrating the stereotyped misconceptions North Americans often hold about Latin American culture and 14 examples of the misconceptions that Latin Americans often hold about North American culture. The book also contains suggestions on how to use and display the cartoons.

Value clarification exercises can be helpful in aiding the student to obtain a more effective understanding of Latin American culture as opposed to a purely intellectual one. However, unless the teacher is well acquainted with the subtleties of Latin American culture and language as well as with the proper handling of value clarification exercises, such exercises can be more harmful than helpful. Lack of knowledge about Latin America coupled with the misuse of value clarification exercises can easily result in reinforcement of rationalizations, stereotypes, and negative images of Latin America instead of understanding and empathy. With these words of caution in mind, some teachers might like to consult *Cross-Cultural Inquiry: Value Clarification Exercises* by J. Doyle Casteel and Clemens Haliman; and *The Welcome Mat: Four Keys to Latin American Culture* by J. Doyle Casteel. Both publications are available from the Center for Latin American Studies, University of Florida, Gainesville. *Cross-Cultural Inquiry* consists of a series of short case studies or vignettes "in which the student is forced to project himself into a decision-making situation, and then, through the value clarification questions that follow, to justify his decisions." With little effort on the part of the students and teacher most of the case studies can be adapted for role play or cultural minidramas. In *The Welcome Mat* students are supposed to "respond to carefully structured mini-simulations in the form of value sheets" to "perceive and experience events in the manner in which Latin Americans perceive and experience them."

Resources

A good how-to book on introducing cultural concepts to your students is *Teaching Culture: Strategies for Foreign Language Educators*, by H. Ned Seelye. Although designed primarily for foreign language teachers, Seelye's book is also very useful for teachers in social studies, the humanities, and related fields who are seeking strategies for introducing Latin American culture to their students. Seelye's book includes a chapter on teaching cultural concepts through techniques such as cultural minidramas, culture assimulators, culture capsules, and culture clusters. There are also discussions of culture shock, ethnocentrism, creating cultural empathy, learning activities, and an extensive bibliography, among other things.

An excellent introduction to cross-cultural communication is also found in *Living in Latin America*, by Raymond Gorden. In the foreword to this book it is characterized as "by far the best guide yet to appear on how to increase the quality of routine interpersonal relations centering around home life in Latin America." Gorden presents a series of instructive and insightful examples of cross-cultural miscommunication that serve to illustrate how a person's own cultural conditioning can distort his or her view of another cultural reality, thus resulting in a "failure to communicate."

A good introduction to the concept of culture and cross-cultural communication is *The Silent Language*, by Edward T. Hall. This eminently readable introduction to the subject is suitable for high school students.

Further aids for teaching about Latin American culture can be found in this handbook in **KEY IDEAS**, Contemporary Society and the Family and Contemporary Culture. There you will find a number of student activities, books, and instructional aids that will help you in introducing Latin American culture to your students.

FRANCISCO DE LOPEZ Y MENDOZA: A FICTITIOUS BIOGRAPHY

Jerry L. Bower

This brief, fictitious biography, although written for college freshmen, can also be used with high school seniors when discussing the political decisions the newly independent Latin American nations faced in the 1820s. Prior to giving individual copies to the students, the teacher should have defined and discussed the terms "republic" and "monarchy."

The best approach is to give the students the information at the end of a class session and indicate they should come prepared to discuss their response at the next meeting. The results have been surprising and rewarding, as the discussion has been conducted primarily by the students, with but an occasional comment from the teacher.

Francisco de López y Mendoza
(1780–1835)

Francisco de López y Mendoza was born in Caracas, Venezuela. His parents were *peninsulares*. His father served for many years as a member of the Caracas *audiencia*. When he retired, his father was rewarded by the king with the gift of a large tract of land near Caracas. Before his death, Francisco's father had developed the land into a prosperous hacienda and he had entered into a partnership with a Caracas merchant to import and export various products. When Señor López died, Francisco inherited the entire estate, since he was the only son.

Naturally, Francisco received the best education European universities could offer. He studied in Spain, France, and England. He traveled extensively, even visiting the United States for a few months. During his studies Francisco was intrigued with the philosophy of the Enlightenment. He especially enjoyed reading the political philosophers, e.g., John Locke and Montesquieu. He agreed with their common premise that the form of government should be determined by the people of a nation on the principle that the form chosen should serve and promote the people's interests. While in the United States Francisco acquainted himself with the political philosophy of Thomas Jefferson.

Francisco returned to Caracas in 1805 and resumed management of his extensive agricultural and commercial interests. The following year the king appointed him captain of the regiment stationed in Caracas. Although Francisco was grateful to receive the honor, he would have preferred an appointment to a political office because he believed he could better further his interests in that capacity. But, he noted with disgust, those positions went to *peninsulares*—tradition must be served!

In May 1810 a major crisis occurred. Communications arrived in Caracas from the Junta of Seville directing the Caracas *cabildo* (town council) to place itself under the authority of the Junta. The next evening a meeting of the *cabildo abierto* was held. (The *cabildo abierto* was an "open town meeting" that all adult male residents could attend; its decisions were only advisory to the regular *cabildo*.) At the meeting it was decided that Caracas would not accept the directive of the Junta of Seville. Instead, Caracas would establish its own *junta* (council) to "rule in the name of Ferdinand VII, King of Spain," who was at the time a prisoner of Napoleon Bonaparte. Francisco entirely approved of the decision, since it rested on the Spanish legal tradition that the Spanish colonies were the personal property of the Spanish monarch and not the property of the Spanish nation. Francisco was elected to the *junta*.

The Junta of Seville reacted by sending a fleet of ships and several army regiments to Venezuela to enforce its authority. Francisco commanded a small band, about 200 men, of Creoles, mestizos, and a few Indians in several indecisive clashes with the Spaniards. During the long intervals between military engagements, Francisco continued to manage his commercial affairs, which he discovered, to his delight, to have expanded considerably since Venezuela had declared its ports open to "free trade." This action meant, of course, that Francisco and the other merchants no longer were constrained to obey the mercantile rules of Spain.

Finally, in 1821, Simón Bolívar led a combined army of Venezuelans and Colombians to victory over the Spanish. Both colonies were independent. After a few days of total exhilaration, vented in numerous fiestas, Francisco realized that a very serious decision must be made. Venezuela would have to decide which form of government—monarchy or republic—it would adopt. As a member of the *junta*, Francisco must make up his mind.

Thoughts raced through his mind. Perhaps he should give his support to the monarchists. He remembered the reward his father had received from the king, which was the foundation of his own considerable wealth; he recalled the pride he felt upon his appointment as a captain in the Spanish army. He greatly admired Simón Bolívar, fellow native of Caracas and revolutionary hero, who had written several convincing arguments urging the adoption of a constitutional monarchy. Bolívar believed the populace was not prepared to operate a republican government effectively and that the people were accustomed to a monarchical system.

But Francisco's mind flashed back to the carefree days at the universities in Europe where he had absorbed the political philosophy of the Enlightenment. His travels in the United States—and how he had admired the republican government of that nation—were vividly recalled. As he turned back to his account books, Francisco also reflected on how much his commercial business had improved when freed from royal control.

The time had arrived. Francisco left his house, stepped up into the carriage and ordered his driver to take him to the town hall for the *junta* meeting.

Instructions

You are Francisco de López y Mendoza and *you* are at the *junta* meeting. Each *junta* member is asked to record his vote for monarchy or republic, and to give his reasons for his vote.

1. How will you (Francisco) vote—for a monarchy or a republic?
2. Why will you (Francisco) vote that way? (What reasons can you elicit from the biography?)

MODERNIZATION AND THE AFRO-AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

James Henderson

This lesson, although designed for use by college students, can be readily adapted for use with high school seniors. A teaching module concerning the black experience in Latin America and the Caribbean during the early twentieth century, it is designed as a one/two week component in high school or college-level courses having a cross-cultural, Afro-American, or Latin American focus.

I. "Modernization" and its relationship to the Afro-Latin American experience.

Modernization may be viewed as a societywide transformation brought about through scientific advances, industrialization, urbanization, increasing literacy, and an increasing belief in the value of the individual. In this century people all over the world have become caught up in the process of modernization. Trains, automobiles, and airplanes have vastly increased human mobility, and radio signals have penetrated every part of the world. Literacy levels have begun to increase dramatically. The people of every country have become aware of the wider world, and profound economic developments have touched them physically. The city has become a lure to the country folk. Money can be earned in factories spawned by new technology, and life is more exciting in urban areas. Perhaps most important, the world's peoples have come increasingly into contact with ideas that had been common currency only among the intelligentsia prior to the era of urbanization. The masses of ordinary people around the world have begun to participate in the political life of their countries not simply as clients but rather as vocal proponents of their *own* ideas. At this point in world history modernization has become a fact. The people have begun shaping their own destiny; the fundamental concept of the Western democratic ideal has become a reality. Ironically, nineteenth-century liberalism is no longer a viable social philosophy. The world community has turned to other theories of social organization as more realistic in a world of individual participation at all levels of society.

The liberating effect of modernization is nowhere more apparent than among black people in the Americas. Civil rights movements in both Anglo and Latin America are understandable parts of the greater phenomenon of global modernization. It is the objective of this module to help students and teachers understand the connection between modernization and the Afro-Latin American experience.

II. Goals and objectives for students using this module

A. Be able to place the Afro-Latin American experience in the larger context of Third World modernization.

B. Be able to interpret several of the assigned readings as Latin expressions of the same sentiments voiced by notable Afro-Anglo Americans such as Booker T. Washington, W. E. B. DuBois, and Martin Luther King, Jr.

C. Be able to interpret the readings as concrete manifestations of the growing awareness of black ethnicity throughout the Americas as part of a worldwide revolt against various kinds of European-inspired domination.

D. Be able to discuss the connection between mass media and the growing assertiveness of Afro-Latin American blacks.

E. Be able to discuss the connection between the growing assertiveness of Afro-Latin American blacks and urbanization.

III. Activities through which these educational goals may be achieved

Teachers and students should explore the subject of modernization and Afro-Latin America through (1) careful study of the assigned readings, (2) classroom discussion of the readings, (3) the use of visual aids that show students the people and places being considered.

IV. Topical outline of the module

A. The problem of identity for Afro-Latin Americans living in a world not of their making

B. The nature of race relations in Latin American nations

1) Cuba
2) Puerto Rico

C. The beginnings of the Afro-Latin American search for ethnic solidarity

D. The nature of Afro-Latin American religion

E. The continuation of African traditions and customs in twentieth-century South America

1) Suriname
2) Colombia

F. The adoption of Anglo-American values and social institutions by Afro-Americans

V. Bibliography keyed to the subject outline (IV above) (the instructor should use these readings as discussion starters by having students read the articles early in the teaching of the module. As an additional activity students might be asked to find additional readings for each topic of discussion. The instructor should assure students that a vast literature exists for each of the six topics contained in the module.

A. Identity problem: de Pestre, René. "Problems of Identity for the Black Man in the Caribbean." *Caribbean Quarterly* 19 (Sept. 1973): 51–61.

B. Race relations, Cuba and Puerto Rico: Knight, Franklin W. *The African Dimension in Latin American Societies* (New York: Macmillan, 1974), pp. 93–105.

C. Ethnic solidarity: *The National Negro Voice* (Kingston, Jamaica) 1, no. 1 (July 19, 1941).

D. Religion: Smith, Michael C. *The Ras Tafari Movement in Kingston Jamaica* (Kingston: University of the West Indies, 1960), pp. 7–31, 48–54.

E. Continuities of African Customs in South America: DeGroot, Silvia W. "The Bush Negro Chiefs Visit Africa: Diary of an Historic Trip," in *Maroon Societies*, ed. Richard Price (New York: Doubleday, 1973), pp. 389–398.

F. Adoption of Anglo-American values: Manning, Frank Edward. *Black Clubs in Bermuda* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1973), pp. 147–182; and Whitten, N. E. *Black Frontiersmen* (New Yor.: John Wiley, 1974), pp. 97–123.

VI. Evaluation

The following sample questions are given as "discussion starters" for use by teachers and as possible examination questions by which student comprehension may be tested. Instructors may want to adapt the wording of the questions.

A. Questions concerning the topic in general:

1) A "process of modernization" supposes movement from a situation called premodern. What would characterize a premodern Afro–Latin American society?

2) Do you feel that the term "mass movement" is a suitable description of the phenomena described in these readings? Why or why not?

3) Why does it seem that blacks of the Caribbean islands have had greater difficulty asserting their ethnicity than blacks in continental Latin America?

B. Questions concerning specific readings:

Reading A (de Pestre):

1) Did Anglos and Latinos intentionally try to make blacks ashamed of their African heritage, or did Anglos and Latinos simply insist that their respective cultures were superior to *all* others?

2) Do you agree with de Pestre's statement that West Indian blacks have been deeply damaged, in a psychological sense, by the trials they have endured throughout history?

Reading B (Knight):

1) Knight states that Cuban slave owners wanted the abolition of slavery in the nineteenth century. Does the historical evidence concerning slavery in Cuba support his view?

2) Does the evidence suggest, as Knight does, that Cuba and Puerto Rico were rapidly becoming racially homogeneous societies between the time of abolition and onset of the twentieth century?

3) What is Knight's reasoning in saying that John Clytus did not really perceive discrimination against blacks in post-Castro Cuba?

4) Describe the many ways that the U. S. influence in Cuba and Puerto Rico increased racial tensions on the two islands during the twentieth century.

5) Why is it that Puerto Rico has been so successful in attacking its problem of racism?

Reading C (*National Negro Voice*):

1) Who was Marcus Garvey and what did he do?

2) The Germans did little to enslave and exploit West Indian blacks. Why, then, were the black publishers of this newspaper so against the Germans in 1941?

3) What were the principal aims of the U.N.I.A.?

Reading D (Michael Smith):

1) What was the connection between the Ras Tafari and the U.N.I.A.?

2) How do you assess the members of a religious group that worships an Ethiopian king and believes that members achieve salvation through returning to Africa?

3) Do you feel that the average Ras Tafari member exhibits the kind of emotional scars alluded to by de Pestre and mentioned in question A-2 (above)?

4) What is the significance of the fact that the Ras Tafari movement grew rapidly in the 1950s and after?

Reading E (DeGroot):

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND CROSS-CULTURAL SHARING: UNITED STATES AND MEXICO JOINT WATER PROJECTS

Jo Ann Sweeney
Avonna D. Swartz

The purpose of this lesson is to introduce simultaneously the concepts of economic interdependence, international cooperation, and cross-cultural sharing by studying joint U.S.-Mexico water projects on the Rio Grande.

Subject: Economics/government
Audience: 12 grade
Objective: Students will analyze a game activity and compare it to a case study in water conservation cooperation.

Water Game: Materials and Aids

1. ***Situation cards***: 2 sets of 6 to 9 cards* (see following pages for content of cards).
These cards represent the decisions of the Water Commission in awarding or taking away the resource, water. Make cards. Put numbers on the back of cards and tape them to the chalkboard so that students may select them.
2. ***Water containers***: 1 large and 2 smaller (clear glass or plastic cups are best).
There will be 3 containers utilized in this activity. The first—the largest—container will be at the front of the room and will represent the **Water Commission's** supply of water. It should contain an amount of water that has been determined prior to the beginning of the game. Before beginning the game, the teacher must determine how much water to put into the container (depending on how the teacher wants the game to end). The teacher may choose
a. not to have enough for either the city or agricultural teams to win
b. to have enough to allow the game to have a winner (teacher needs to calculate, depending on where mark is placed on small container)
b. to eliminate the remaining water (by drinking it or throwing it out) toward the end of the game to illustrate how resources can be lost.
The teacher should give one of the 2 smaller containers to the city dwellers team and the other to the agricultural team after the class is divided into 2 groups. The teacher should mark the empty containers to a set level at the beginning of the game. The lines should be the same for both groups. These lines will denote the water level the groups need to win the game.
3. ***Two tablespoons***: used to transport the natural resource (water).

Water Game: Directions

This activity strives to capture student interest by engaging them in an activity related to the use of a limited natural resource.

1. Read directions for setting up the game.
2. Students are divided into 2 groups: one representing urban interests, the other representing agricultural concerns. One student should be chosen to represent the Water Commission.
3. Teacher gives each group a container that is marked. Explain that this mark represents the group's *minimum* water needs. The first group to reach this mark wins.
4. Explain to the students that the Water Commission's container represents the *only* source for the water they need.
5. Flip a coin to determine which group will start. The groups should clearly understand that they represent different interests—one agricultural, one urban. A member of the first group chooses a situation card.
6. The student acting as the water commissioner will read the situation cards as they are requested and oversee the distribution of water.
7. To fill granted orders, students must carry the water from the Water Source Container to their Team Container in spoons. This illustrates the importance of carefully transporting a scarce resource.
8. At any point, the teacher may choose to terminate the game by eliminating the sole source of water (drink it or throw it out). The teacher must be ready to explain to the students that scarce resources can be and are lost due to various circumstances, such as contamination, drought, and overuse.
9. The game may be allowed to continue to its conclusion.

Game Cards

Type information on cards to be taped to board.

City Cards

1. July has been an extremely hot month and the citizens of the city have increased water consumption to keep gardens green. You are awarded 5 tablespoons.
2. The city's Utilities Commission has requested that water be released to maintain acceptable levels of water pressure. You are awarded 3 tablespoons.
3. The city's sewage treatment plant has overflowed and contaminated part of the water supply. You lose 1 tablespoons.
4. The city is instructed to release water for irrigation so that crops won't fail. Give the farmers 2 tablespoons.
5. Industrial use of water in the city increases drastically. You are awarded 3 tablespoons.
6. The dam upstream must release water to relieve pressure on the structure and prevent overflow. You receive 3 tablespoons.

Agriculture

1. A drought is causing livestock and crops to perish. You are awarded 5 tablespoons.
2. Because of an upstream drought, your order for water is denied. High heat makes a portion of yours evaporate. You lose 1 tablespoon.
3. Spring showers have replenished scant water supplies. You receive 3 tablespoons.
4. The ground water supply usually used for irrigation has been contaminated by illegal dumping of hazardous waste. You receive 3 tablespoons.
5. Thousands of acres of desert have been approved for use as croplands. You get 4 tablespoons.
6. The dam upstream must release water to relieve pressure on the structure and prevent overflow. You get 4 tablespoons.
7. Cities experience extreme drought. Farmers are instructed to release water to the urban area for basic survival. Give the city 3 tablespoons.

Game Debriefing

Following the game, the students should discuss the activity and their impressions of the activity. Some suggested debriefing questions:

1. What happened in the game?
2. Why did you carry water in the spoons? (Use caution to avoid wasting a valuable resource)
3. How did you feel when your team had to give up water?
4. What makes a resource valuable?
5. Do you think the situations have anything to do with real life?
6. Have you ever thought of water as a scarce resource? Why?
7. What are some uses for water?
8. Have any of you ever lived in an arid region or ever had water rationing? Describe what it was like.
9. When there is a drought, what happens to supply and demand for water? Why?
10. How do you think scarcity of water can be prevented? (conservation, reclamation)

After students have completed the gaming activity and discussed the questions, the teacher should introduce the case study of the International Boundary and Water Commission (IBWC). This case study represents an example of international cooperation to effectively distribute a valuable natural resource between two countries.

Teacher Background Lecture: Key Points to Cover

This lecture should provide students with a general understanding of the development and purpose of the IBWC.

Outline for Lecture

I. Function of IBWC
  A. Purpose
    1. To secure the rights and duties of both U.S. and Mexico under the many boundary and water treaties that exist between the two
    2. To benefit economic and social welfare of citizens of both nations
  B. Jurisdiction
    1. All water resource and dam projects between United States and Mexico

II. History of Joint Water Activities between U.S. and Mexico
  A. Projects
    1. Rio Grande Rectification Project (1933)—straightened 135-mile river boundary and controlled flooding through Valley region
    2. Utilization of waters of Colorado, Tijuana, and Rio Grande Project (1944)—provided for two governments to construct and operate dams jointly for conservation and storage of water

a. Amistad Dam and Reservoir
b. Falcon Dam and Power Plant

III. Project Implementation
  A. Procedure
    1. Commissioners from both countries meet weekly at border location in El Paso/Ciudad Juárez
    2. Any agreement or recommendation that is subject to approval is recorded in minutes in English and Spanish
    3. Copies are sent to each government and either approved or rejected
    4. If approved, costs are determined by benefits received by each country

Transition

After briefing the students on the function, history, and procedures of the IBWC, assign the following reading.

Student Reading: Two Joint Water Projects on the Rio Grande*

There have been over a dozen joint projects of the United States and Mexico constructed or undertaken through the International Boundary and Water Commission on the Rio Grande. Handfuls of other joint projects on the Colorado River and others dealing with the international land boundary running between these two nations have also been successfully completed. It is important to note that all of these joint efforts have occurred during the course of almost fifty years and during almost a dozen different political administrations. It is indeed remarkable that this continuing spirit of cooperation has persisted and even flourished during otherwise troubled and tense periods in U.S.-Mexican relations. Evidently, economic cooperation and the realities of economic interdependence have been somehow able to transcend political and diplomatic disputes and controversies.

The two most instructive projects on the Rio Grande are the International Amistad (Friendship) Dam and Reservoir Project and the International Falcon Dam and Reservoir Project. Both of these joint ventures highlight the kind of economic cooperation that is so necessary in developing productive, mutually beneficial relationships within the framework of a global economy. Of special interest is the extent to which both cultures, though drastically different in both needs and orientation, can work together to share the burdens of construction, operation, and maintenance for the common good.

The Amistad Dam and Reservoir Project

The Amistad Dam was designed to control devastating floods that in the past decimated agricultural production on both sides of the border in addition to enabling each country to better conserve and utilize its designated share of the river's water. The dam is situated approximately ten miles upstream from Del Rio, Texas, and its sister city, Ciudad Acuña, Coahuila, and downstream from the moths of the two prime flood-producing tributaries, the Pecos and Devils rivers.

The background of the planning and construction of the Amistad Dam covers the administrations of three American presidents. The U.S. part of the construction was authorized by an act of Congress on July 7, 1960. Prior to beginning construction, Pres. Dwight D. Eisenhower and Pres. Adolfo López Mateos met at Ciudad Acuña near the proposed site of the dam and agreed that construction should indeed proceed. Construction of the Amistad Dam began in 1964 and was completed in 1969. During this period, as a symbol of international cooperation, Pres. Lyndon Johnson and Pres. Gustavo Díaz Ordaz met at the dam to assess its progress. On September 9, 1969, the dam was officially dedicated by Pres. Richard Nixon and Pres. Díaz Ordaz. The interest and concern shown by the presidents of the two nations was indicative of their desire to improve both international relations and the the economies and living conditions in the affected areas. The very name of the dam illustrates this point.

The Amistad Dam extends 254 feet above the riverbed; its total length is 6.1 miles, with 1.8 miles on the U.S. side and 4.3 miles on the Mexican side. The dam produced a reservoir with a total capacity of over six million cubic meters of water, of which over four million cubic meters were designated for conservation of waters for release as required by the two countries. The remaining storage capacity of almost two million cubic meters is used in controlling floods. As outlined int he 1944 treaty, each government determined the storage capacity it needed in the reservoir; the United States has 56 percent, and Mexico has 44 percent of the dam's total conservation capacity. Cost of construction was split between the two governments int he same proportion as set forth in the treaty.

The dam was jointly planned and constructed through their own sections of the IBWC. Each country constructed its portion of the dam with its contractors, but under the ultimate supervision of the IBWC. The two governments jointly maintain and operate the dam and divide the costs in the same proportion as the construction. Both sides are currently constructing hydroelectric power plants for generating much needed energy sources. Each nation has a 50 percent share in this energy potential. Since beginning operation in the late 1960s, the Amistad reservoir has successfully controlled floods six times and has provided an adequate water supply for downstream users along the Rio Grande.

The Falcon Dam and Reservoir Project

The Falcon Dam, like the Amistad, was jointly constructed by the United States and Mexico in accordance with the 1944 Water Treaty under the auspices of each country's respective section of the IBWC. The primary purpose of the Falcon Dam is to control floodwaters and allow both nations to use its designated share of the Rio Grande's waters most efficiently. The International Falcon Dam is located eighty miles downstream from Laredo, Texas, and Nuevo Laredo, Tamaulipas. The U.S. portion of construction and operation was authorized by the American-Mexican Treaty Act of September 13, 1950. Construction began that same year and the dam was dedicated by President Eisenhower and President Adolfo Ruiz Cortines in a much-publicized ceremony at the dam site on October 19, 1953.

Falcon Dam reaches a height of 150 feet over the riverbed of the Rio Grande and has a total length of five miles, three of which are on the Mexican side. The capacity of the reservoir is almost five million cubic meters. Slightly over 3 million cubic meters are used for conservation of floodwaters and later released as need arises; the remaining 1.5 cubic meters are used for flood control. As with the Amistad Dam, both governments independently determined the conservation capacity needed in the reservoir: the United States claimed 59 percent; Mexico received 41 percent.

The Falcon Dam was designed by the U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation, under the supervision of the IBWC Operation and maintenance of the dam is undertaken jointly through the IBWC. Releases from each country's share of the waters in conservation storage to meet downstream needs are made as requested. The authority int he United States is the Texas Department of Water Resources.

Since its first year of operation in 1954, the Falcon Dam has provided a controlled and regulated water supply for municipal, domestic, and agricultural purposes downstream for both country. No serious shortages have occurred through this period. Interestingly, in 1954 the Falcon Reservoir successfully contained the highest flood ever recorded on the Rio Grande. Had the flood not been checked by the dam, agricultural looses in the highly developed Lower Rio Grande Valley would have been massive. During the 1967 downpour caused by Hurricane Beulah, the large flood created upstream of the dam was totally contained, again avoiding immeasurable losses to both the United States and Mexico. Not so fortunate, however, was the area downstream of the dam. Extensive damage occurred in Harlingen and McAllen, Texas, as well as to farmland on both sides of the river. This tragedy prompted the IBWC to recommend in 1970 that the two governments establish the Lower Rio Grande Flood Control Project to avoid a repeat of the 1967 flood. Both governments approved a coordinated plan of improvements that resulted in strengthened levees and improved diversion work. Again, the cooperation and sharing of ideas and resources between the United States and Mexico produced economic advantages to both sides and alleviated the danger of natural catastrophe.

*This information comes from a paper written by Jo Ann Sweeney and Anthony Olm and presented at the Southwestern Economics Association annual meeting, 1986.

Student Reading: Debriefing

1. Following the reading, the teacher should discuss the reading with the students.

Sample Questions

1. What is the IBWC and why was it established?
2. Should the United States and Mexico try to work together to conserve a scarce natural resource? Why?
3. What problems can you foresee with the joint projects (economic, cultural, problems of distribution, etc.)?
4. What advantages can you foresee with the joint projects (economic, cultural, problems of distribution, etc.)?
5. How should costs related to the development, building, and maintenance of the dams be distributed?
6. From your reading, does it seem like the benefits of these joint projects have been good or bad for the countries involved?

LEARNING ABOUT LATIN AMERICA/ WRITING ABOUT LATIN AMERICA

Susan G. Bennett
Elaine D. Fowler

In the introduction to this book, Dr. Richard Adams states a convincing case for U.S. schoolchildren and all North Americans to understand Latin America. However, he cautions us that the filters through which understanding takes place—political situations and beliefs, long-held isolationist attitudes, and misunderstandings—have a dramatic and deleterious effect on our abilities to come up with reasonable solutions to problems that should or will have an impact on U.S. ecology, economy, and sociology in the near future. He quotes James Reston, who said that "Americans will do anything for Latin America except read about it." We would argue that in addition to reading about Latin America, students must also write about it to truly know and understand our neighbors to the South. Furthermore, we argue that knowing and understanding are not synonymous; that is, until learners can compose about the concepts and facts they need to know, the information really isn't theirs and consequently is not available for constructive problem solving.

Therefore, our goals for this essay are (a) to convince educators/content-area specialists of the necessity of considerable student writing in their classes and (b) to provide specific activities appropriate to students at all levels studying about Latin America. To fulfill our goals, this section of the chapter is divided into three subsections: (1) what content-area (social studies) teachers need to know about writing; (2) what content-area teachers can do about composition assessment and evaluation; (3) how social studies teachers can include writing in units on Latin America.

1. What Content-Area (Social Studies) Teachers Need to Know about Writing

Heretofore, the task of encouraging writing has been left to the English teacher, who, historically, has done too little composition instruction to satisfy most students' writing needs. In defense of the English teacher, writing cannot take place in a vacuum; the writer needs to have something of interest to write about, whether it be fact or fiction. Content-area teachers have, understandably, been reluctant to take on part of the responsibility for writing instruction. They ask, "How can I teach something I'm not confident that I know? How can I find time to teach writing skills when I barely have time to cover the required subject curriculum? How can I fairly evaluate a product when I am buried under scores of test papers directly concerned with my subject matter?"

Our answer is that teaching, for example, social studies, is teaching thinking. Writing requires thinking. In fact, thinking may require writing. Therefore, teaching social studies requires writing.

Sheridan Blau, a teacher, scholar, and researcher in the area of writing and thinking, postulates the following:

1. Teachers must try to recognize and acknowledge exemplary thinking in the discourse of students whenever it occurs. *Writing offers this opportunity.*
2. Thinking is learned as a social activity. All thinking implies an auditor or respondent or collaborator or reader. *Writing offers this opportunity.*
3. Advances in thinking are most likely to occur when thinking is directed to solving authentic problems. *Content-area courses offer this opportunity.*

Furthermore, from a very different perspective, Alfred Kazan writes, "In a very real sense, the writer writes in order to teach himself, to understand himself, to satisfy himself."

Considering the closer relationship between thinking and writing, the processes of doing both, we can argue, are their own reward. In fact, if the adage is true that you don't know something unless you can put it into your own words, then teachers are terribly remiss if they depend on lectures, readings, and objective tests to impart knowledge, especially knowledge as potentially controversial, explosive, and significant as our understanding of Latin America. This suggests that writing is learning, thinking, and problem solving—all necessary for understanding.

Basically, what content-area teachers need to know about writing is that the act itself, the struggle of the learner to make sense of information and to share this information with others is the significant part of the process for subject matter purposes. Also useful to know is that most rhetoricians agree that effective writing requires (a) a real audience, (b) a purpose, and (c) a point of view or mode. Although different theorists use varying descriptors and categories, we have chosen to use the labels proposed by James Kinneavy for our brief summary.

Kinneavy proposes four aims of writing: the expressive, the persuasive, the informative, and the literary. At first glance, certain of these aims lend themselves best to certain content areas. Whereas the literary may be best suited for an English classroom, the other three are all appropriate to a social studies classroom for reading and writing purposes (see table 1).

Table 1. Aims

Expressive	Literary	Informative	Persuasive
Self-expression	*Literature*	*Exposition*	*Persuasion*
(of individuals)	Short stories	*(Informative)*	Advertising
Conversation	Jokes	News articles	Political speeches
Journals	Ballads	Reports	Religious sermons
Diaries	Folksongs	Textbooks	Legal oratory
Gripe sessions	TV plays	Summaries	Editorials
Prayer	Drama	Encyclopedia articles	Etc.
(of groups)	Movies	*(exploratory)*	*(explaining & proving)*
Minority protests	Novels	Dialogues	Scientific reports
Myths	Poems	Seminars	Research studies
Contracts	Epics	Discussions	Legal briefs
Religious credos	Etc.	Proposed solutions	Mathematical
Declaration of		to problems	theorems
Independence		Diagnosis	Etc.
Manifestoes			
Utopia plans			
Laws			
Etc.			

Similarly, the point of view or approach or mode of a piece of writing is important for effective communication. As you can see from table 2, each mode describes a kind of writing likely to be expected in a social studies classroom. In the activity section of this unit, we will detail ways of dealing with aims, modes, and audience in a social studies classroom that circumvent actual instruction in these concepts while preparing students to be successful learners and writers. However, we feel that this discussion is necessary to provide the content-area teacher with knowledge essential to building confidence as a writing teacher in a non-English class as well as to provide guidelines for making reasonable writing assignments (see table 3).

The second major theoretical concept we believe content-area teachers need to know is that writing is a process that *may* result in a product appropriate for assessment and evaluation, but certain steps of the process are intrinsically valuable to the learner and the teacher. Not only does this belief relieve the burden of correcting and grading from the content-area teacher, who may feel composition correction is beyond his or her responsibility or ability, but also this belief requires that teachers know how to encourage the composition process and what to expect at each stage.

Essentially, social science teachers need to realize that composing, like problem solving, is *not* a linear process. Simultaneously, the writer is likely to be thinking, putting ideas on paper, revising, correcting, and generating new ideas. Therefore, the traditional kind of writing assignment where students walk into a classroom, clear their desks, receive a topic, and proceed to create a suitable, finished product in fifty minutes often produces an experience and essay satisfactory to neither the student nor the teacher.

In this setting the student has not been able to benefit from the by-products of content-area writing—the opportunity to explore an idea, to organize information, to posit solutions, to think, and to make a personal investment in his or her own learning—and the teacher is left to face scores of formulaic, often repetitious and boring, not-worth-reading student papers. Both groups are left hating writing and its results, but for little gain. However, by recognizing and exploiting the by-products of each step of the writing process, all participants benefit.

The step most often overlooked by teachers is the prewriting stage. Prewriting can take many forms (see

Table 2. Modes

Narration	Description	Classification	Evaluation
Biography History News stories Novels Short stories Dramas Case histories in psychology, medicine Sports reporting Etc.	Of a town or country Of geological formations in a canyon Of organization of books, plays Of plot structure of a novel Of people Of structure of population Of structure of a government, industry	Definition of democracy, novel, obscenity, freedom, change Classification of diseases, skiers, fish, governments, languages Comparisons or contrasts of religions, governments, dramas, dialects, writers Etc.	Of political systems Of religious systems Of techniques of producing something Of farming methods Of football teams Of actors Of politicians Of clothing Of toothpastes Of actions of individuals or groups Of books Of heroes Of cement Of building Etc.

the activity section), but this is the stage that stimulates ideas, personally engages and motivates individuals, and alleviates fear and discomfort of the subject matter itself and the writing assignment. Prewriting can include techniques such as brainstorming, discussing, or contemplating a topic.

The second step, writing, really consists of numerous mental operations more specific than need be enumerated in this discussion. All teachers, however, need to recognize that sincere writing takes time—often more than a typical class period provides. Another instructional consideration is that for as many students as are in a classroom, as many preferred ways of writing can exist. Some writers feel most comfortable using a pencil, a word processor, a special pen; some composers first outline their structure; some make random notes in margins; others organize in their heads much as some mathematicians create solutions in their minds; some need to sit straight at a desk; others slouch against a wall; some need quiet; others need background music. Though no teacher can provide the optimum writing environment for every student, teachers must recognize and respect the needs of all writers for time to think, to reflect, and to make decisions during the writing phase of the process, no matter how strong, weak, or idiosyncratic the writer's skills.

The final stage of the writing process and the one students most resist is the revising/editing/correcting phase. Not only have students traditionally left this stage to teachers, in spite of the potential damage to both their grades and their self-esteem, but, when offered the opportunity to take control of this stage, have usually made superficial, cosmetic changes that rarely result in consequential improvement of their written work. This is also the stage that may make social studies teachers most uncomfortable. They haven't been trained to be composition experts and evaluators; they feel unsuited and uninterested in becoming arbiters and improvers of written language, and their students sense this ambivalence.

2. What Social Studies Teachers Can Do about Composition Assessment and Evaluation

An easy though facetious response to this topic is, "Nothing—relax and downplay the correction/evaluation part of content-area writing"—but that truly is the best answer. Social studies teachers should not have to be the arbiters of perfect language. Content-area teachers are right in their hesitancy to become grammar, punctuation, and usage teachers. However, any professional educator, regardless of subject field, can recognize a coherent argument, a consistent use of evidence, a well-organized, logical sequence, a comprehensible

Table 3. Assignments

	MODES			
Aims	Description	Narration	Evaluation	Classification
Expressive	You are visiting your aunt in Colorado. Write a letter to your parents describing your visit.	Your sister has been away at Naval Officers Training School. Tell her everything that has happened during her absence in the form of a note or letter	Write an entry in your journal telling about the great movie you saw today.	Write an entry in your journal comparing the amount of homework in 3d grade with the amount in the 4th
Persuasive	Select and describe a few aspects of computer programming. Tell a friend why he or she should learn how to program.	Write a parable convincing me that this saying is true: "Birds of a feather flock together."	You have evaluated students' qualifications to serve as "Library Helper." Convince the librarian to select someone. Write down what you would say.	Explain to your class why they should buy a Macintosh instead of an IBM-PC
Informative	Describe the procedure for entering events in Track & Field Day at your school	Write an informative narration of the Battle of the Alamo	Assess the strengths of the music program at your school.	Write a news article explaining the difference between T-ball and baseball
Literary	Write an acrostic that describes the characteristics of Texas	Write a short story with computer crime as a theme	Write a folksong supporting an antilitter campaign	Write a fairy tale where good and evil are the themes

response, and a proper use of facts and data to support a conclusion. In fact, we are suggesting that every conscientious content-area specialist has the responsibility and is uniquely qualified to judge the above features of written language *better* than the English teacher, who may have little familiarity with the demand and expectations of a particular subject. Ideally, English teachers and subject area teachers work together. But when that is not possible, content-area teachers need to take responsibility for letting students know when their compositions have or have not met the standards and criteria of that field of study. In part 3 of this unit, we will provide specific prewriting, drafting, and evaluation techniques and procedures for selected activities.

3. How Social Studies Teachers Can Include Writing in Units on Latin America

As mentioned earlier, all teachers share in the responsibility for assigning writing. Writing, like speaking, is a communication process that transcends subject areas. Just as a student is expected to be able to respond verbally, so should he or she be expected to respond in an acceptable written form. But, as H. E. Butts, grocery magnate, has pointed out, "you must inspect what you expect." Helping or teaching writing may appear frightening at first, but it can be done without great expenditure of time, training, or effort on the social studies teacher's part. First, what are the requirements for including writing in studying about Latin America? What do teachers need to accomplish this objective?

- No special schedule—writing can be done at any time
- No exotic training
- No new gadgets
- No new classrooms or special grouping arrangements
- No increase in funding
- No reduced teaching load

What is required is a teacher who understands that

- Aim + Mode + Audience + Style = Written Composition (see table 3)
- there are recursive stages/steps that students must go through to produce an effective composition
- writing can serve a particular purpose and appeal to various audiences by virtue of the multitude of forms that can be used (see table 4)

No matter what anyone attempts to do—make a pie, fix a carburetor, arrange a wedding reception—there are stages of preparation to go through to get the final product. The same is true for writing. These stages in writing are generally labeled *prewriting*, *writing* or *drafting*, and *revision/editing* (Graves, 1983) and are part of the process of writing. In prewriting, students discover and explore what they want to write about. In writing (or drafting, as this stage is sometimes called), they create what they want to say about a topic. In revision, they craft their writing by adding, deleting, and moving sections, polish their writing, and produce a final draft. Teaching writing means showing students how to work with their ideas and words so they can write what they mean effectively. To do so, the best thing a teacher can do is *teach* the writing process and *model* it.

In the following paragraphs, selected techniques and activities that can be used for prewriting, for writing, or for revisions on any topic in any subject area, social studies included, will be described. Eleven assignments are suggested to demonstrate how writing can be included in units on Latin America.

Stage 1—Prewriting

Prewriting is the stage that stimulates ideas and personally engages and motivates individuals. Some effective prewriting activities that could be used are the following:

1. *Freewrite.* Often we discover what we want to say only after we have started writing on a new topic. Freewriting can help remedy this. Freewriting means writing without stopping for five to ten minutes. The writer does not reread, make corrections, or stop to think; the writing must be continuous. This writing helps writers select ideas, words, and images to include or discard when they begin to write. Freewriting can be *unfocused* with no predetermined topic during which time and topic may be discovered, or focused, in which writers jot down whatever comes to mind about a particular topic. It is sometimes a good idea for the student to read the freewriting aloud to a neighbor to get feedback and then freewrite again to home in on ideas to use in the paper.
2. *Draw a picture/doodle, diagram.* Drawing first, then writing is an effective way of helping students discover what they want to say about a topic. Drawing more than one picture—when writing about something that occurred in chronological order—may be helpful. Drawing as rehearsal is particularly effective for young or reluctant writers.
3. *Conduct interviews.* When one student interviews another, both may find a topic and a starting place. Interviews help the interviewer discover what will interest others about the topic.
4. *List.* After a topic is chosen, the students make a list of interesting details that could be used to develop the topic. Again, students could ask their peers about details that might be included or deleted. Writing does not have to be a lonely endeavor.
5. *Brainstorm.* Brainstorming is a technique (5 to 6 minutes) for bringing forth from a group a great number of different and stimulating ideas. Instead of weighing ideas, members "storm their brains" for the sake of dreaming up as many ideas as they can. A recorder who writes quickly puts all suggestions on a blackboard or a large chart. Waiting a day or so to evaluate the ideas is a good procedure with older students, to organize the ideas and reflect on and evaluate them more objectively.
6. *Write alternative "leads."* Leads are opening statements. Once a topic is chosen, students can be asked to write three different lead statements and choose the one they like best before proceeding. This

Table 4. Sample Writing Assignments Utilizing Aim/Mode/ Audience

	MODES			
Aims	Description	Narration	Evaluation	Classification
Expressive	You are visiting a specific place in Latin America. Write a letter to family or friend in the U.S. describing your visit in terms of what sights you have seen, what new experiences you have had, or what kinds of people you have met. *Make it come alive.*	You are visiting Mexico City. Write a letter home describing a particular incident that you experienced or witnessed. It must be something that you cannot imagine occurring in your own country	Write a paragraph telling what you have enjoyed the most in this unit on Latin America or write a tribute to a historical Latin American figure, e.g., Eva Perón or Benito Juárez	Compare the amount of interest you have in this unit of study about Latin America and a previous unit you have studied
Persuasive	Create a brochure that entices tourists to visit a particular landmark, city, or country in Latin America. Describe its positive attributes. Example: The ruins at Chichén Itzá	Write a parable or fable that conveys the basic truth behind a common Spanish or Portuguese expression, e.g., "Lo que se deja para mañana no se hace nunca" (What is put off until tomorrow never gets done)	You have evaluated several forms of aid that the U.S. has provided to Latin American countries (economic, technological, humanitarian, military). Write your congressman arguing for or against adherence to a specific aid policy	Convince your class to support a particular point of view on a specific issue by comparing and contrasting 2 points of view. Example: U.S. immigration law as it treats Latin Americans
Informative	Write a paragraph describing in detail a particular type of dwelling that can be found in some part of Latin America. You may base your description on a photograph	Write an informative narrative telling the history of a Latin American country, hero, heroine, battle, or institution, e.g., the Chilean coup or the role of the church in Mexico or El Salvador	Assess the strengths and weaknesses of a specific decision made by a Latin American leader, e.g., the 1938 nationalization of the Mexican oil industry or Argentina going to war against Britain over the Falkland (Malvinas) Islands	Write a news article explaining the difference between the political systems of 2 Latin American countries (Cuba and Costa Rica)
Literary	Write an acrostic that describes the characteristics of a particular Latin American country: B J R U AMAZON Z G I L SÃO PAULO E	Write a short story with a traditional Latin American celebration as a theme: the Day of the Dead, Children's Day, May Day	Write a ballad supporting a popular movement in Latin America, e.g., the Zapatistas during the Mexican Revolution, or the mothers of the disappeared in contemporary Argentina	Turn a current event into a tall tale where facts are exaggerated

helps them discover a focus for the writing and avoid being "trapped" by their first idea.

Stage 2—Writing/Drafting

Prewriting paves the way for the process of writing. Teaching and modeling the following procedures helps students develop drafts:

1. *Cut and paste.* Students should be encouraged to write drafts with spaces left between the lines, then to cut the papers apart and move sections of paper around, gluing sections together until they find the most satisfactory arrangement of ideas.

2. *Use invented spelling.* Allowing students to spell, punctuate, and capitalize freely during rough drafts can encourage rather than inhibit the writer's train of thought. Students can wait until later to correct errors with a spelling dictionary or a usage handbook.

3. *Ask questions.* While students are writing is not the time to grade papers, take a break, or write lesson plans for the next day. This is the time when students should be encouraged to ask questions about the content of their compositions and be questioned by the teacher in order to improve their papers. Here are some questions teachers might ask students as they are drafting papers:

- How is it going?
- Can you tell me more about that?
- Can you say more about _____?
- If you put that idea in, where could it go?
- What's the most important idea here?
- How could you change _____ to include your new idea?

The important idea here is to encourage the students and allow the piece to be their own compositions, not the teacher's. Sometimes a teacher's interference will cause a student to abandon a paper like "a touched egg to which the bird never returns."

Stage 3—Revising/Editing

Unless the writing is for personal reasons, generally speaking, the composition should be revised and edited. The concept of courtesy to the reader is important to clarify. Revising is the process of deciding what should be changed, deleted, added, or kept in a subsequent or final draft. Some ideas for helping students at this stage include the following:

1. *Peer editing.* In this activity, each member of a group (4 or 5 persons) brings a composition to share and critique. One person reads his or her composition aloud. Every other group member responds one or more specific ways to the writing, by *pointing* to or stating what words, sections, or ideas the responder finds most effective; by *summarizing* or saying in one sentence what the responder thought was the main idea; by *telling* or saying what the paper made the responder feel or think about it as it was read. Usually the writer does not comment until everyone has finished responding; he or she then responds to the comments and revise as necessary.

2. *Teacher conference.* During this stage, after the first draft is completed, the teacher can ask questions and help with editing problems. Here are some questions that teachers can ask to help with the revisions and editing needs:

- Does the beginning of your piece grab the reader's attention?
- What did you learn from this piece of writing?
- How does this draft sound when you read it out loud?
- What do you think you can do to make this piece better?
- What needs to go here to make the sentence read like you want it to?

All these procedures, techniques, and activities are suggestions that can be implemented no matter what the assignment. All stages in the writing process are recursive—students move back and forth among the stages. Of course, the best thing teachers can do is to write, too. Donald Graves, noted authority on written composition, states that if we had to write the assignments we give, we would get rid of most of them. At any rate, some suggested assignments to use in units on Latin America follow.

1. **Summarize a questionnaire**
Students write a brief questionnaire (5 items maximum) eliciting opinions on a specific topic (Latin America) that has been addressed in class. They administer the questionnaire to friends, neighbors, relatives, and write a summary of the results.

2. **Respond to an article**
Students locate an editorial or critical article appearing in U.S. publications that focuses on some aspect of Latin America. Students then form groups and identify the major arguments of the author and make a chart-diagram that ranks these and identifies any facts or evidence the author provides for each argument. Then each student in the group must write a *persuasive* response to the author's argument (agreeing or disagreeing). Students must support their counterarguments with evidence or fact. Finally, each group gets a turn to sit on a discussion panel (one student serves as

master of ceremonies and *mediator*), with the rest of the class as audience. First, the chart-diagram defining the original author's argument is presented. Next, each student on the panel gets a turn to present a response. The floor is then opened to questions and comments from the rest of the class.

3. **Dialogue in an interview situation**

   One student plays the role of a Latin American public figure, contemporary or historical. Other students interview him or her. The rest of the students observe the interview and write a brief, *informative* news article describing the recent visit to the United States of whoever the interviewee was and summarizing the highlights of the interview.

4. **Dialogue as a debate**

   Students choose debatable topics such as international trade laws, decentralized development, or economic reforms and write a dialogue as though two people were arguing the point.

5. **Interior monologue**

   Students choose an expressive picture of a Latin American "man on the street" and write an interior monologue based on the picture. Use "I" to tell the story of the person's hopes, experiences, fears. In an interior monologue, a writer tries to imagine how another person would tell his or her life story based on the evidence of a photograph.

6. **Descriptive adjectives**

   Elementary students. Play segments of different types of Latin American music (salsa, cha-cha-cha, samba, rhumba, tropical, ranchero, ballads) and give students time to write up to five adjectives to describe each segment. Run off a list of the adjectives used. The next day give students copies of all adjectives used, play the music again, and have them underline the most effective adjectives used for each segment. This activity can be done with images on slides instead of with music.

7. **Sentence building**

   Elementary students. Collect pictures of tools or implements or technology in use in a broad range of contexts in Latin America. Some examples might be adobe ovens, computers, bicycles, produce carts, water buckets, horse-drawn ploughs, tractors, typewriters, photocopy machines, hand-made stick brooms, ceramic jugs, wells. Distribute one picture to each student. Display slides depicting different contexts in Latin America: rural schools, offices, cultivated lands, small villages, etc. Discuss the scenes, encouraging students to determine in which of the settings depicted their item would be used and what it would be used for. Students can write an *informative* paragraph, naming their article, describing it, and telling where it is used, by whom, and for what purpose, or they can write an *expressive* composition in the form of an interior monologue, taking on the identity of the inanimate object and telling its story: What am I? Where am I? What are my surroundings? Who uses me? What do I do for people?

8. **Description of confrontation**

   Have students form small groups to enact historical or typical political-social-economic confrontations that have occurred in Latin America: between peasant and landowner; between management and labor; between colonizers and indigenous peoples. Have the rest of the class act as witnesses and write statements describing exactly what happened, both words spoken and actions. Form small groups again and have students trade compositions and compare their accounts through discussion.

9. **Pen pals**

   Establish contact with a high school in Latin America where students are learning English. Have students write letters that include descriptions of their favorite pastime, of a family or cultural custom, or of an issue that is of particular interest to them. Students should elicit some sort of response from their pen pals about the topic of their letters: Do you also enjoy activity X? Does your family also have this custom? What do you think about issueX? If the exchange if successful, the knowledge that students gain about their pen pal might eventually form the basis for biography writing. Students of Spanish should write their letters and the biographies of their pen pals in Spanish.

10. **Advertisements**

    In a unit about typical foods of Latin America, show pictures of open-air markets. Have students write a catchy jingle or sales pitch that would help a vendor sell a product.

11. **Riddles**

    Have students write riddles about a typical Latin American food (e.g., tortillas, hot peppers, plantains, guavas, bananas, papayas, chimichurri sauce, empanadas, avocados, mangos). The riddles should be shared with the class so that students can find how effective their riddles are. If possible, this activity should include the opportunity for students to see, smell, touch, and taste some of these foods before they write their riddles so that adjectives or descriptions will be multisensory.

In summary, writing enhances the learning process in a most positive way. It requires thinking, understanding, and the ability to express thoughts, ideas, and conclusions clearly. It is a mental activity that becomes visible and concrete when put on paper. To neglect writing is actually to cheat the student, for, as James Moffett (1981) states, "Instead of using writing to test other subjects, we can elevate it to where it will *teach* other subjects, for in making sense the writer is making knowledge."

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MIDDLE AMERICA: LOCATION AND PLACE

Richard G. Boehm
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Jesse Palmer

The publication *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools* is historic, because it suggests a sequence of learning outcomes in geography for grades K–12. Such a structure is important because it provides guidance for state and local education officials, textbook publishers, curriculum supervisors, and teachers.

The guidelines suggest that, in grades K–6, geography be woven into the social studies curriculum and strongly associated with such other areas as science, reading/language arts, and mathematics. In grades 7–12, the possibility exists for geography as a separate subject, normally in the form of world geography or geography of the home states. Later, elective geography courses might include economic geography, political geography, environmental geography, or United States geography.

Guidelines offers another significant contribution. Five fundamental themes that form the "core" of geographical study are identified: location, place, human-environment relations, movement, and regions. All geographical study, it might be argued, is characterized by at least one of these themes and most by two or more. Further, location and place could be defined as the "building blocks" of the discipline.

Only by mastering location and place can the student proceed to higher-order geographical concepts. The challenge is to find interesting ways to teach the building blocks of geography so that students advance in their studies with good feelings about how they learned about locations and places.

Teaching Location in Middle America

Without question, the most important tool of the geographer is a map. Maps show location, distributions, and evidence of human interaction. They suggest situations involving human-environmental relationships. Maps typically display regions, either physical or cultural or both. Atlases are perhaps the best source of good maps and are widely available at low cost for use in schools.

Another type of useful map is the outline map that allows students to record information gathered from atlases or other geographical sources. The map in this article (Figure 1) is of Middle America and shows a minimal amount of location and place information. Nonetheless, such a basic map fosters familiarization with location and develops "mental maps" in students. Knowledge of place follows an understanding of location.

Middle America customarily includes Mexico, Central America, and the various islands of the West Indies. The Tropic of Cancer passes through Mexico north of Guadalajara and through the Gulf of Mexico north of the West Indies. Thus, with the exception of northern Mexico and some islands of the Bahamas, all of Middle America lies in tropical latitudes.

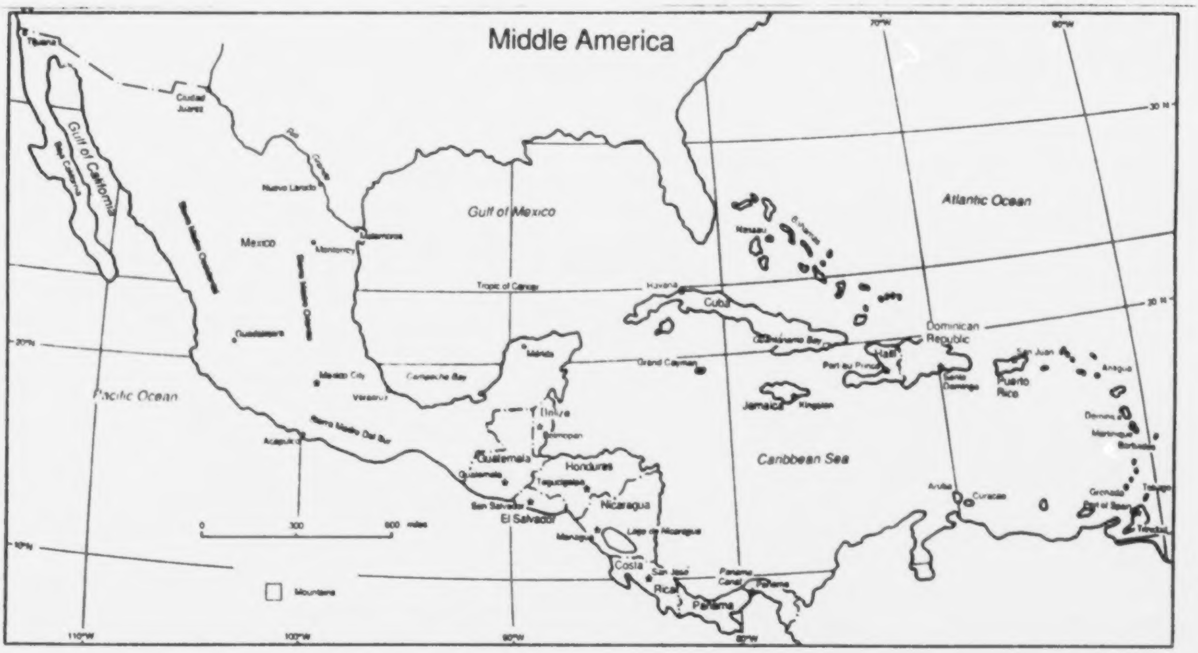
'Absolute location' refers to precise mathematical location within a grid, normally latitude and longitude. Latitude is distance measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds north and south of the equator. Longitude is distance measured in degrees, minutes, and seconds east or west of the prime meridian. With the assistance of an atlas, it is easy to determine the following absolute locations:

	Latitude	**Longitude**
Mexico City	18.28N	99.09W
Havana	23.08N	82.22W
Kingston	18.00N	76.45W
Tegucigalpa	14.08N	87.15W
Grenada	12.02N	61.15W

'Relative location' is the relation of a place to its surroundings. One might describe Jamaica as being south of Cuba. Or, one might describe the location of Mexico City in the Central Plateau of Mexico. Panama City is in the Pacific Lowlands near the southern entrance to the Panama Canal. Vera Cruz is on the Gulf of Mexico coast and has strong trade linkages with the core of Mexico in the Central Plateau (Mexico City and Guadalajara).

Two other terms that are used with respect to location are 'site' and 'situation'. 'Site' refers to the characteristics of a place or location, whereas 'situation' refers to how that particular place is related to

FIGURE 1


Middle America
Tijuana
Ciudad Juarez
Gulf of California
Baja California
Rio Grande
Nuevo Laredo
Matamoros
Mexico
Monterrey
Gulf of Mexico
Tropic of Cancer
Guadalajara
20°N
Mexico City
Veracruz
Campeche Bay
Merida
Pacific Ocean
Sierra Madre Del Sur
Acapulco
Belize
Belmopan
Guatemala
Guatemala
Honduras
Tegucigalpa
San Salvador
El Salvador
Nicaragua
Managua
Lago de Nicaragua
Costa Rica
San José
Panama Canal
Panama
Panama
0
300
600 miles
10°N
Mountains
110°W
100°W
90°W
80°W
70°W
60°W
30 N
20 N
Atlantic Ocean
Nassau
Bahamas
Havana
Cuba
Guantanamo Bay
Grand Cayman
Dominican Republic
Haiti
Port au Prince
Santo Domingo
Jamaica
Kingston
San Juan
Puerto Rico
Antigua
Dominica
Martinique
Barbados
Caribbean Sea
Aruba
Curacao
Grenada
Tobago
Port of Spain
Trinidad

other places. Site looks at internal factors, local forces and processes, whereas situation is external.

Middle America's *situation* is critical—particularly from economic, geopolitical, and strategic perspectives. Most of Middle America has a tropical climate, and many exotic products are grown that find a ready market in the United States. Huge tonnages of goods flow along trade links between Middle American nations and American ports, particularly Houston and New Orleans.

There is a significant flow of minerals northward as well, with the focus on petroleum, bauxite, and alumina. Tourism also flourishes, as the proximity of Middle America to the United States offers a fine opportunity for vacationers.

Because of its location, Middle America is important strategically and has traditionally been considered in the primary sphere of influence of the United States. There has been a long record of United States involvement in the affairs of Middle American nations, some indirect but some direct to the point of military invasion.

The American legacy in Middle America is spotty, with a heritage of suspicion, fear, and anger. Communist control of Cuba just 90 miles off the coast of Florida has escalated U.S. concern about political events in Nicaragua and El Salvador. Here location breeds a suspicious geopolitical environment. Middle America wants and needs close ties to the United States but would prefer to have those ties exclude meddling in national political affairs by the "giant of the north."

Mexico is further blessed or burdened, depending on perspective, by a shared border with the United States. Each year 1–2 million Mexicans enter the United States illegally. Although these aliens cause problems for the United States, they have assisted the economy of both countries in different ways. In Mexico, illegal aliens have relieved the population pressure and aided the economy by sending back home difficult-to-earn American dollars.

In the United States, illegal aliens have caused social problems, but they have also provided farms and factories with abundant low-cost labor. The alien problem, a product of situation, helps to tie together the destinies of the United States and Mexico. The alien problem is not just restricted to Mexico. In other countries in Central America and the Caribbean, refugees flow northward to the United States, reflecting the vagaries of politics and economy in the areas of out-migration.

The location and situation of Middle America has impacted upon drug trafficking—a major irritant in the relationship with the United States. While major suppliers of illegal drugs originate in such South American nations as Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Brazil, the transport routes inevitably cross Middle America. Panama, Mexico, and Jamaica have a spotted history of drug exportation. When the political winds blow right, enforcement springs forth. Six months later, it is business as usual. Illegal drugs in the United States are an issue not only of vast sums of money, but also of public health since thousands die annually from drug overdoses and thousands more are seriously handicapped by the debilitating effect of heroin, cocaine, and marijuana.

Place in Middle America

Places in Middle America have physical and cultural characteristics. These are what make the regions distinguishable from other areas throughout the world.

1. *Physical Characteristics*

Since most of Middle America lies in the tropical latitudinal zone, one could generalize and say that the climate is tropical and thus hot and wet the year round. That would obscure some important variances that are critical elements of the physical environment. For example, northern Mexico is dry and hot with most agriculture requiring some form of irrigation. Further south in Mexico and through much of Central America, there is a distinct rainy season that usually lasts from May through October. The same can be said for the Greater Antilles. Another consideration is elevation. In tropical Latin America, three vertical climatic zones are commonly identified:

tierra caliente (hot lands)—0–3,000 feet—hot, rainy—plantation agriculture
tierra templada (mild lands)—3,000–7,000 feet—20–20 degrees cooler, mid-latitude agriculture, cities with distinct Anglo-European citizens, such as San José and Mexico City
tierra fría (cold lands)—7,000 feet plus—20–30 degrees cooler, Indian inhabitants, subsistence agriculture

Because of hot, rainy conditions, vegetation is luxuriant and difficult to keep clear. Peasant farmers often burn away the brush to be able to farm only to find that soil fertility declines rapidly because *leaching* occurs more rapidly. Leaching is the percolation of nutrients down into the lower soil horizons because of heavy rain and no vegetation cover. Farmers who follow the practices of slash-and-burn agriculture find themselves on a continuous treadmill of having constantly to clear new areas to plant crops.

Soils in Middle America are reasonably fertile especially along the coastal lowland in the floodplain of rivers. There, alluvial soils tend to be rich in fertility and respond well to cultivation. Even in the forested upland areas, soils have a natural fertility no doubt related to the heavy cover of humus that is spread incessantly on the forest floor. Once vegetation is removed, however, soil erosion escalates and leaching sets in.

A rich diversity of landforms exists in Middle America. In Mexico, the Central Plateau nestles between the Sierra Madre Occidental (West), Sierra Madre Oriental (East), and the Sierra Madre del Sur. South of Mexico City is a highly active volcanic zone. Stretching from the Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico is the saddle of Tehuantepec. The Yucatan Peninsula is a vast lowland that is periodically swept by tropical hurricanes.

In Central America, mountains typically form the spine of countries with narrow coastal plains on either side with the broadest expanse on the Caribbean coast. In the West Indies, central mountains dominate many of the islands. Only in Cuba and the Bahamas do lowlands cover more territory.

2. *Cultural Characteristics*

Culturally, Middle America is a land of great diversity. Even in such areas as language and religion, thought by some to be homogeneous, there is considerable disparity from region to region. Country after country reports 90 percent or more as Roman Catholic, yet David Clawson's report on empirical research in Mexico suggests that the Catholic religion is often practiced in a nominal fashion. A "nominal" Catholic is defined as "baptized, believing, but not practicing." He further reports that startling inroads are being made by Protestant sects. In 1974, the respected Protestant Missions Advanced Research and Communication Center listed Mexico as 4 percent Protestant, 86 percent

Roman Catholic, and 10 percent "other." Catholicism may be on the decline to the benefit of other denominations.

The pattern of language is similar. It is likely that in Spanish heritage countries, Spanish is the language of more than 80 percent of the population. In countries like Mexico and Guatemala, substantial minorities still speak Indian dialects. In Belize, the official language is English as it is in Jamaica, the Bahamas, and islands in the Lesser Antilles. In Haiti, the citizens speak French creole.

Examination of Table 1 shows a considerable disparity in population and economic characteristics. Several Anglo heritage countries such as Barbados, the Bahamas, Trinidad, and Tobago exhibit reasonable birth rates and growth rates. Perhaps as a result, their per capita gross national product in U.S. dollars is higher than the typical Middle American nation.

Throughout the rest of the area, with the exception of Cuba, the prevailing pattern is high birth rates, low death rates, high population growth rates, and high dependency ratios. The life expectancy in three Middle American countries (Guatemala, Honduras, and Dominica) is 63 years or less. In almost all of these nations, 40–45 percent of the population is under the age of 15. Given the social and economic burden that this type of population structure represents, these countries are not likely soon to break out of their underdeveloped status.

Within nations, rural to urban population migration further aggravates problems. There simply are not enough jobs or housing in most Middle American cities to acommodate the swarming horde of immigrants. Mexico City at 18 million is now the largest city in the world. By the year 2000, it will have 24 million people. The future looks bleak for those who crowd into the slums on the periphery of major cities. Crime, disease, and other forms of social disorganization will be the rule rather than the exception.

It would be desirable to conclude that the economy of Middle America harbors hope for the future, but that is not the case. It is apparent rather that the situation has changed ;little during the past 50 years. Table 2 suggests that most Middle American nations still suffer from a monoculture type of economy. Comparison of the 1970–1972 data with the 1982–1984 data makes it clear that little progress is being made in the diversification process. Economic life in Middle America is characterized by a monotonous status quo.

Concluding Remarks

Learning about location and the physical and cultural characteristics of a place are the key building blocks to the study of a geographical area. These must be learned before advanced geographical organizational concepts such as human-environment relations, movement, or regions can be understood.

Students and teachers frequently complain about learning location, but recent tests have revealed a national disgrace in student location and place-name knowledge. Educators must not take lightly the building blocks concepts that are essential to understanding a geographical place.

Film/Video Resources

Central America. BETA/VHS, 16 min. 1974. Examines insularity, overpopulation, and poverty in Central American countries. Sterling Educational Films, Inc., 241 East 34th St., New York, NY 10016.

Central America: A Human Geography. BETA/VHS, 16 min. 1978. The three major regions of Central America, Tierra Fría, Tierra Templada, Tierra Caliente, and the people who live and work there are examined. Coronet Films & Video, 108 Wilmot Road, Deerfield, IL 60015-9990.

Central America: A Human Geography. 16 mm (color), 16 min. 1978. Focuses on people and their occupations: a canal worker, banana plantation worker, a cacao farmer, Indian farmers, ranchers, coffee and cotton harvesters, and a mestizo family. Depicts problems of poor education, rapid industrialization, and increasing migration into the cities. Coronet, Division of Simon and Schuster Communications, 108 Wilmot Road, Deerfield, IL 60015-9990.

Costa Rica: My Country. BETA/VHS, 14 min. 1974. A boy narrates this video about the people, land, and industry of his country. Britannica Films, 425 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60611.

Man and His Environment, I: *Rainforest Family*; II: *Food from the Rainforest.* Each 16mm (color), 18 min. 1971. Highlights a Choco Indian family from the Central American rainforest. Shows how they cope with their environment. BFA Educational Media, Division of Columbia Broadcasting System, Inc. Distributed by Phoenix/BFA Films and Video, Inc., 470 Park Ave. South, New York, NY 10016.

Netherland Antilles. BETA/VHS, 14 min. 1981. The climate, beaches, and free port are depicted as attracting tourists. The Dutch West Indies islands of Curaçao and Aruba also have developed into a center for the oil industry. Lucerne Films, Inc., 37 Ground Aire Rd., Morris Plains, NJ 07950.

Table 1
Middle America:
Population and Economic Statistics, 1987

Selected Countries	Pop. Est. Mid-1987 Millions	Birth Rate	Death Rate	Natural Increase	Yrs. to Double	Pop. Under 15 Over 65 (%)	Life Expect. at Birth	Per Capita GNP (US $)
Central America								
Belize	0.2	33	6	2.7	26	46/5	70	1,130
Costa Rica	2.8	31	4	2.7	25	35/4	74	1,290
El Salvador	5.3	36	10	2.6	27	46/4	66	710
Guatemala	8.4	41	9	3.2	22	46/3	60	1,240
Honduras	4.7	39	8	3.1	22	47/3	63	730
Mexico	81.9	31	7	2.5	28	42/4	67	2,080
Nicaragua	3.5	43	9	3.4	20	47/3	61	850
Panama	2.3	27	5	2.2	32	38/4	72	2,020
Caribbean								
Antigua and Barbuda	0.1	15	5	1.0	71	27/6	72	2,030
Bahamas	0.2	23	6	1.8	39	38/4	70	7,150
Barbados	0.3	17	8	0.9	78	30/11	73	4,680
Cuba	10.3	18	6	1.2	58	27/8	73	—
Dominica	0.1	22	5	1.7	41	40/7	75	1,160
Dominican Republic	6.5	33	8	2.5	28	41/3	63	810
Grenada	0.1	26	7	1.9	37	39/7	72	970
Haiti	6.2	36	13	2.3	30	39/6	53	350
Jamaica	2.5	26	5	2.0	34	36/7	73	940
Netherlands Antilles	0.2	19	6	1.4	51	30/7	75	6,110
Puerto Rico	3.3	19	7	1.3	54	30/9	75	4,850
St. Kitts-Nevis	0.05	26	11	1.6	45	37/9	67	1,520
St. Lucia	0.1	30	6	2.5	28	44/6	71	1,210
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	0.1	26	7	2.0	35	43/6	69	840
Trinidad and Tobago	1.3	27	7	2.0	34	34/6	70	6,010
North America								
United States	243.8	16	9	0.7	102	22/12	75	16,400

Source: Population Reference Bureau, *1987 World Population Data Sheet.*

Table 2
Middle America:
Monoculture Exports as a Percent of Total Exports, 1982–84

Selected Countries	1st Product Commodity	%	2d Product Commodity	%	3d Product Commodity	%	No. of Prod.	1970–72 %	1982–84 %
Bahamas	Petroleum	90.5	—	—	—	—	1	70.6	90.5
Barbados	Sugar	7.8	—	—	—	—	1	33.9	7.8
Costa Rica	Coffee	26.8	Bananas	25.7	—	—	2	57.5	52.5
Dominican Republic	Sugar	35.7	Dore	19.0	Coffee	11.1	3	49.8	65.9
El Salvador	Coffee	58.6	Cotton	5.3	—	—	2	57.7	63.9
Guatemala	Coffee	30.6	Cotton	5.8	—	—	2	43.4	36.4
Haiti	Coffee	29.3	Bauxite	—	—	—	2	52.7	29.3
Honduras	Bananas	30.4	Coffee	22.9	—	—	2	57.6	53.4
Jamaica	Alumina	46.8	Bauxite	19.0	—	—	2	64.4	65.8
Mexico	Petroleum	69.4	—	—	—	—	1	2.0	69.4
Nicaragua	Coffee	32.4	Cotton	26.9	Beef	7.2	3	53.1	66.5
Panama	Bananas	22.2	Petroleum	11.5	Shrimp	15.5	3	84.2	49.2
Trinidad and Tobago	Petroleum	85.9	—	—	—	—	1	77.4	85.9

Source: Inter-American Development Bank, *Annual Report*, 1985

Notes

1. David L. Clawson, "Changing Religious Patterns in Mexico," in *Latin America: Case Studies*, ed. Richard G. Boehm and Sent Vesser (Dubuque: Kendall-Hunt, 1984).
2. Adapted from Richard G. Boehm and James F. Petersen, "Teaching Place Names and Locations in Grades 4–8: The Map of Errors," *Journal of Geography*, forthcoming.

Note: Special recognition is given to Joe Sterling of Southwest Texas State University for drafting Figures 1 and 2.

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CHAPTER 4. GAMES AND STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The games and student activities contained in this section are an excellent way of developing and reinforcing many of the ideas about Latin America that you will be presenting to your students. In addition to presenting and testing for specific knowledge on various aspects of Latin America, the games and other activities are an interesting and entertaining way for students to develop other skills like the use of reference works and maps. Finally, all of the items included in this section should be viewed as models that can be used for developing similar games and activities most suitable for your particular classroom needs.

1.

Game Know-How

To paraphrase a popular saying, "Ignorance goeth before the Fall." To prevent this, here are a few hints to help smooth out the rough spots when you start making some of the games in this section.

(1) To make a full-sized game board, start with a piece of standard poster board. It may be any color. If the game has a complicated or detailed facing, you can easily reproduce it by using an opaque projector. The enlarged image will enable you to copy it directly onto the poster board. If you don't have access to an opaque projector, an overhead will work just as well. Make transparencies of the game boards found in this section, then project the image onto a wall or any other unobstructed background. Tape the poster board wrong side to the wall and trace the outline on the right side.

(2) The lettering on the board can be done in two ways: handwritten, or printed with Chartpak transfer (press-down) letters. The latter are available in a wide variety of styles and sizes. The alphabet is repeated several times on each sheet, with vowels being more numerous. The type of letters used for "Travel to Texas" is Helvetica Bold Extended #14 PT/M 21414 CL. The type of letters used for "Conquistador" is Helvetica Bold Extended #12 PT/M 21414CL for the space information and Old English #M 2848 CL for the subtitle "Gold, God, and Glory." Regular 2-inch letter stencils can be used for the title of the game "Riesgo." The different categories can be hand printed.

"Travel to Texas" also requires blue, green, yellow, and orange paper (for the color-coded question and chance cards). You will also need blue, green, and yellow stars for this game.

(3) Try to color as much as possible on the game boards. This will make them more appealing. To ensure longevity and durability, laminate the game boards and cards.

Riesgo
Grade level: adaptable to all grades

Conquistador
Grade level: 7-9

Travel to Texas
Grade level: 7-12.

Riesgo

María Garza-Lubeck

Brief Description:

A group game similar to the TV game show *Jeopardy*

Grade Level

Adaptable for use with all grades

Objective

To review and reinforce specific data on any given unit of study

Materials and Preparations

1. Large game board (see illustration 2). For instruction on making game boards, refer to "Game Know-How."
2. Answer/question cards (see illustration 1) of varying difficulty corresponding to the categories you have chosen (i.e., people, places, potpourri).
3. Divide the class into two teams.
4. Select a "master of ceremonies" to read the answers and tally the team scores.

Instructions

1. To begin: a student on Team 1 chooses a specific category and point value, for example, "Places" for 25 points.
2. The master of ceremonies removes the top card from that slot and reads the *answer* out loud.
3. The student must supply the proper *question*.
Example: Answer read by MC: "Gaucho"
Question supplied by student: "What is the Argentine cowboy called?"
If the correct question is given, the points are awarded, the card is removed from the game, and play passes to Team 2. If the student is unable to supply the correct question, the card is returned to the slot, to be used again, and play proceeds to Team 2. The team with the highest score at the end of the game wins.

Variations

1. Create your own categories to reinforce specific areas you are studying. Possible categories are history, arts and crafts, music, and politics.
2. Impose a time limit for answering.
3. Have students make up the questions and answers.

Answer/Question Cards

Examples of answer/question cards for use with Riesgo. The information deals with Argentina.

ILLUSTRATION 1

> **BRAZIL**
>
> What South American country is Argentina's major rival?
>
> 5 points

PLACES

5 points	ANSWER: BRAZIL QUESTION: What South American country is Argentina's major rival?
	ANSWER: PAMPA QUESTION: What is the great plain of Argentina called?
10 points	ANSWER: THE ANDES QUESTION: What mountain range is found in Argentina?
	ANSWER: THE CHIEF PORT OF ARGENTINA; THE CAPITAL OF ARGENTINA QUESTION: What is Buenos Aires?
15 points	ANSWER: NUESTRA SEÑORA SANTA MARIA DEL BUEN AIRE QUESTION: What was the original name of Buenos Aires?
	ANSWER: IGUAZU FALLS QUESTION: What is the largest waterfall in the world?
20 points	ANSWER: TUCUMAN QUESTION: What is the "sugar

bowl of Argentina?

25 points ANSWER: GRAN CHACO
QUESTION: What is the great hunting ground of Argentina?

ANSWER: PATAGONIA
QUESTION: What is the poorest region in Argentina? (land)

PEOPLE

5 points ANSWER: JOSE DE SAN MARTIN
QUESTION: Which famous Argentine liberated Chile? or Who was known as the liberator of the South?

10 points ANSWER: DOMINGO FAUSTINO SARMIENTO
QUESTION: Who was president during (or, may have caused) Argentina's "Golden Age"?

ANSWER: GAUCHO
QUESTION: What is the Argentine cowboy?

15 points ANSWER: PEDRO DE MENDOZA
QUESTION: Who founded the colony of Buenos Aires?

20 points ANSWER: PERON
QUESTION: Which Argentine president had the support of the city workers and ruled until 1955?

25 points ANSWER: JUAN MANUEL ROSAS
QUESTION: Which famous Argentine *caudillo* plunged Argentina into a reign of terror?

POTPOURRI

5 points ANSWER: DICTATORSHIP
QUESTION: What is one-man rule?

ANSWER: Falkland (Malvinas) Islands
QUESTION: In 1982 Great Britain and Argentina fought over the sovereignty of what islands?

10 points ANSWER: EUROPEAN
QUESTION: What is the ancestry of most Argentine people?

ANSWER: SILVERY
QUESTION: What does the word *Argentina* mean?

15 points ANSWER: MESTIZO; MULATTO
QUESTION: What are the children of interracial marriages called?

ANSWER: BOLA
QUESTION: What is the gaucho lasso?

20 points ANSWER: WOOD SO HARD THAT ITREQUIRES SPECIAL SAWS AND AXES TO CUT IT
QUESTION: What is *quebracho*?

ANSWER: ISABEL PERON
QUESTION: Who was the first woman head of state in the Western Hemisphere?

25 points ANSWER: GENERAL JUAN CARLOS ONGANIA
QUESTION: Who gained control of Argentina in 1966 and established a military dictatorship?

ANSWER: HUMAN RIGHTS ABUSES AND MURDER
QUESTION: In 1985 five former junta members, including ex-president Jorge Videla and Gen. Roberto Eduardo Viola, were found guilty of what crimes?

ANSWER: INFLATION (in 1985 inflation was over 600%)
QUESTION: What problem has severely plagued the presidency of Raúl Alfonsín?

ILLUSTRATION 1

RIESGO

5	People	Places	Potpourri
10			
15			
20			
25			

CONQUISTADOR

María Garza-Lubeck

Brief Description

A board game for up to six players that familiarizes the students with the hazards and triumphs of being a conquistador.

Grade level

7-9

Objectives

The student will gain an empathy with the 15th-century explorers and an understanding of the hardships they encountered.

The student will be able to generalize about

1. the motivating force of the conquistador
2. royal power in the New World
3. the role of the church in the colonial era
4. Indian reception of foreign invaders

Materials and Preparation

1. Large game board (see illustration 1). For instructions on how to make game boards, see "Game Know-How."
2. One playing piece per person.
3. A die.

Instructions

The play proceeds as follows. Each person, when it is his or her turn, rolls the die and moves forward the number of spaces indicated. Players must follow the instruction on the space on which they land. Two players may occupy the same space. The first player to reach "El Dorado" discovers its secret and the game ends. Students are **not** to lift the flap on El Dorado and read the information given before a player has landed on that space.

NOTE TO TEACHER: You may want to initiate a class or group discussion after the game has been played to elicit specific feedback on the students' feelings and frustration as the game led them through the hazards and triumphs of being a conquistador. Ask the students what they learned while playing the game and repeat the original question: "Would you have chosen to be a conquistador?"

**The king refuses
to give you
an audience**

The following information is to be filled in on the game board (see example in box above). The letters and numbers correspond to the game board (see illustration 1).

START

A In the 16th century many men dreamed of discovering riches similar to those found in the Aztec and Inca empires. The conquistador was a special man whose zeal carried him beyond his dream into reality. After playing the game, would you have chosen to be a conquistador?

B **"CAPITULACION"**
The king agrees to give you money and supplies. In return he will receive one-fifth of any treasure and rule all new lands. Move up 4.

C Because of your good service to the king you have been honored with an *encomienda*. You will receive 300 hectares for your own hacienda. In addition, you are to govern a major city and 25 surrounding villages. You must throw three 5's (they do not have to be consecutive) to leave. (One throw per turn.)

D **EL DORADO**
El Dorado is a tiny village that sparkles in the sun, but iron pyrite (fool's gold) is the cause! Your disappointment is great until you hear of the fabulous valley of the Amazon, a region inhabited by beautiful, tall warrior women and overflowing with gold and emeralds. You are a true conquistador. To begin your journey, you may go back to **Start**! (NOTE: This information should be covered by a separate

flap with the words "EL Dorado" printed on it.)

1. The king refuses to give you an audience. Move back 1.

2. You meet a good friend of the king's who'll help you. Move up 1.

3. You have finally been granted an audience AFTER the king's three-month journey! Skip a turn.

4. You are having trouble recruiting. Men don't want to leave home for the unknown. Scoundrels and beggars are applying! Skip a turn.

5. Your ships will be ready in four months. Move back 1.

6. Three doctors, two blacksmiths, and a geographer have joined your expedition. Move up 2.

7. The church is sending two priests, but in three weeks. Skip a turn.

8. Everything is finally ready. Move up 3.

9. You must say good-bye to family and friends, maybe forever! Move back 1.

10. YOU SET SAIL! Take an extra turn.

11. You have sailed nine weeks. The men are scared and restless. Move back 1.

12. A storm blows you off course and one of your ships sinks. Skip a turn.

13. Seventy-six of your men have scurvy. The doctors save fifty-three. Move up 1.

14. After sailing three months, LAND is sighted. Take an extra turn.

15. You can't communicate with the Indians. Skip a turn.

16. The Indian EMPEROR gives you gold and silver in friendship. Move up 2.

17. Send one-third of your men to take the royal fifth to your king. Move back 1.

18. You're told of a city of gold—EL DORADO. Set out to find it. Move up 3.

19. After months of searching a king's messenger gives you new orders. Move up 1.

20. The Indians don't want to be Christianized. Fighting erupts. Skip a turn.

21. An Indian gives you directions to EL DORADO. Move up 2. Take an extra turn.

22. Some of your men attack and destroy a village. The Indians are uniting to fight and by now your army is VERY small! Skip 2 turns.

23. The king is pleased with your determination and makes you an *alcalde* of a settled territory. Move up 2.

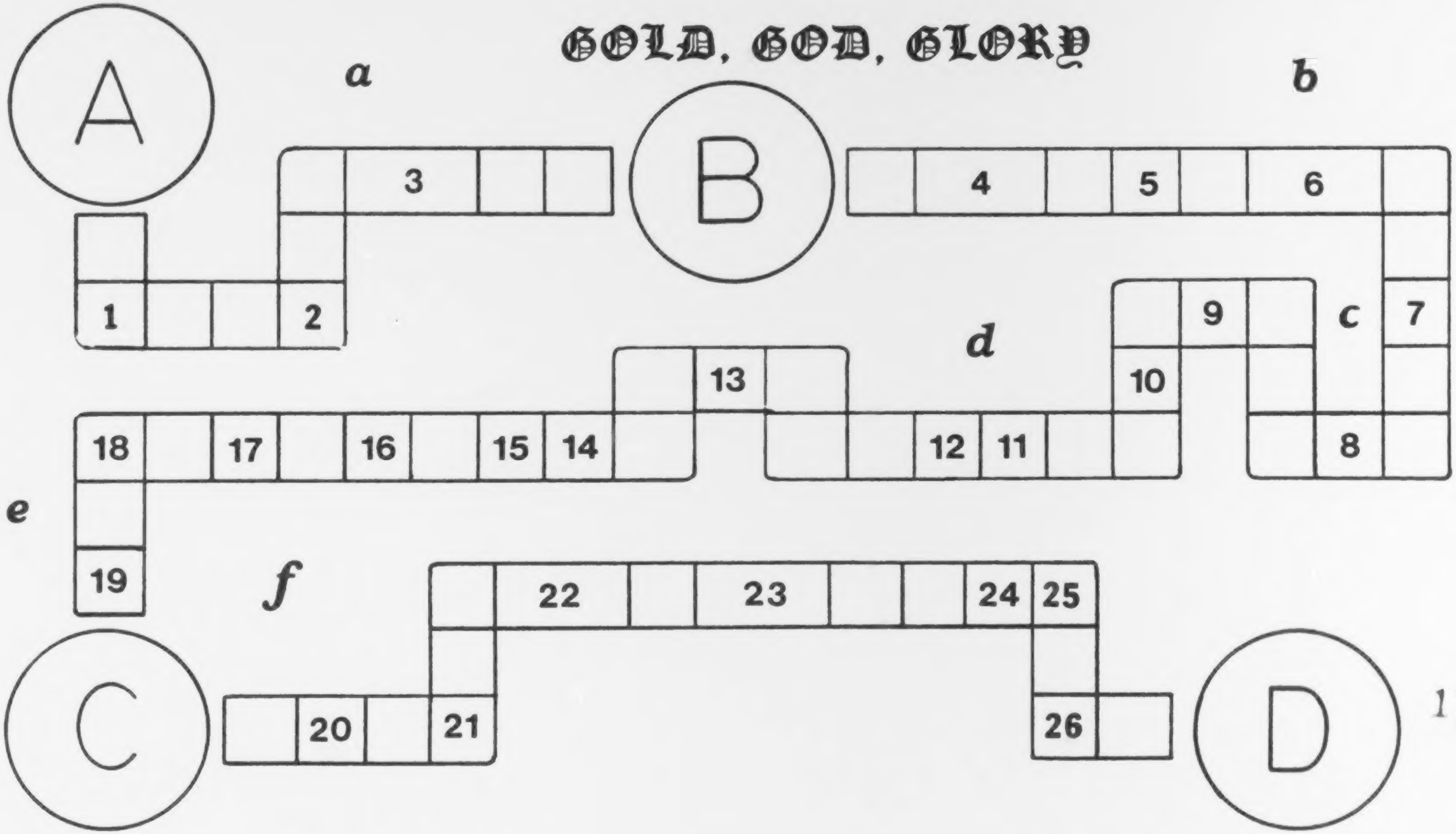
24. You are captured by a warrior tribe. You escape but are wounded. Skip a turn.

25. The king titles you Duke of the New World. Move up 1.

26. An Indian woman befriends you and will be your guide. Move up 2.

CONQUISTADOR

GOLD, GOD, GLORY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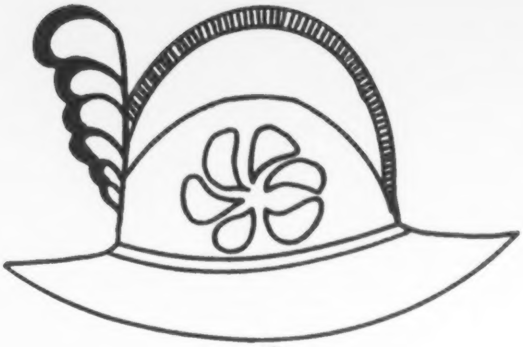

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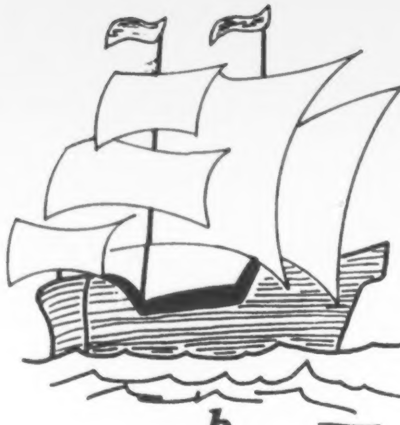

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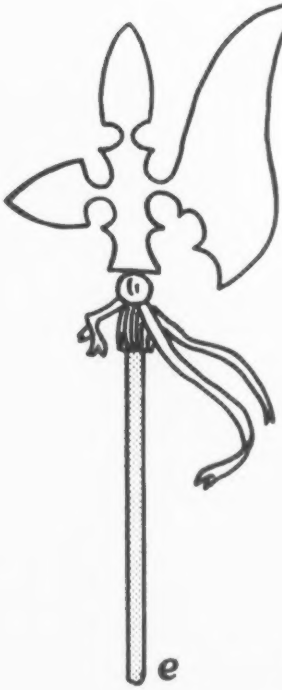

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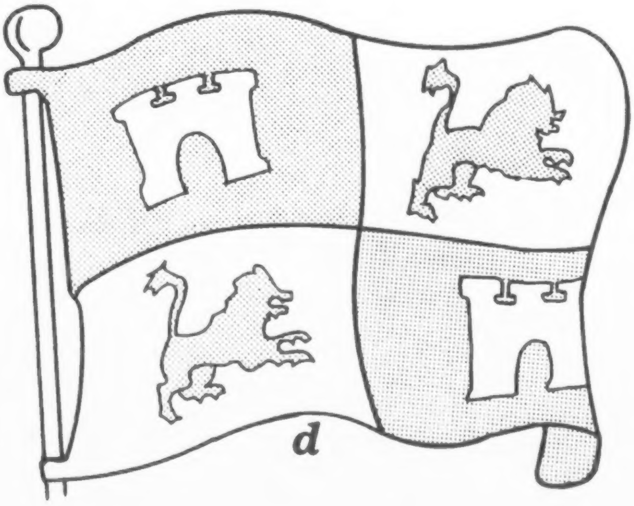

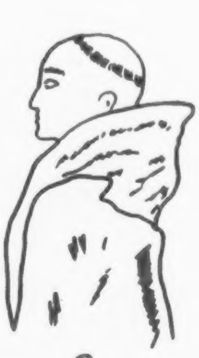

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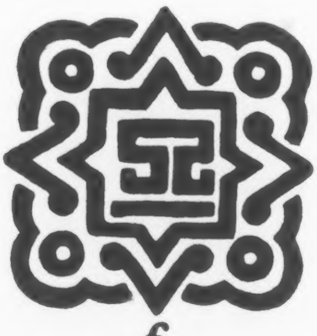


f

ILLUSTRATION: Flat stamp representing the sun emblem, from *Design Motifs of Ancient Mexico.*

TRAVEL TO TEXAS

Peggy Chaussé
Merle Comitius
Mary Kay Griffith
Barbara Kendall

Brief Description

A board game for two to five players designed to enhance students' knowledge of Latin America and to stimulate them to learn facts about Latin America by being placed in a game situation.

Grade Level

7-12

Objectives

The game intends to teach basic facts about various countries in Latin America, provide student motivation for acquiring knowledge on a more self-actualizing basis, and serve as an instructional resource that can be used to diversify the presentation of information.

Materials

Game board
Color-coded answer sheets
One die
Four stacks of question cards
Place markers

Preparation

Game board—follow the diagram of the game board.

Color-coded answer sheets—type questions and answers on colored paper corresponding to the question cards.

Question cards—following is an example of the first question for the yellow color code:

> Name three major accomplishments of the ancient Maya Indians.

Type each question on a separate yellow card. Be sure to put the number of each question in the lower right corner.

Do the same for the blue and green sets.

Chance cards look like the following:

> You won a contest playing the marimba.
> Move ahead 3 spaces

Pregame Considerations

- All concepts presented via question cards do not have to be taught in class. Be sure students understand this.
- Generally, the green question card information should be taught in class, because these questions are "recall"-type questions.
- The yellow and blue questions are intended to range from interpretation to evaluation. However, this is strictly an arbitrary decision, because a teacher can make all the questions "recall" questions simply by teaching the answers.
- Decide whether you or the students wish to design different questions.
- Decide whether players will utilize any of the alternative strategies (see page XXX).

Teacher Preparation

- Prepare or collect all necessary materials.
- When preparing game board, use gold stars to locate capital cities on the map. On the game board diagram, the * (asterisk) indicates either a blue or green star (see alternative strategies for use of these stars).

Suggestions for Use

The game accommodates individual differences as the questions have been categorized into levels of difficulty. The teacher can easily restructure the questions to meet the needs of any group of students. The flexibility of the game lends itself to the following kinds of uses:

1. In individualizing instruction, the game could be incorporated into a learning center by adding a variety of media, etc.

2. In emphasizing self-paced instruction, a module or learning packet on Latin America could key the student to the game.

3. Additional classroom uses for specific cases: absentees, late-entry students, ill or home-bound students, drill and practice, or accelerated students.

Introduction to Game Rules

The players' immediate goal is "to get to Texas" (HOME) by moving clockwise from START to HOME. The players must answer questions correctly to move. The question cards are color-coded according to difficulty: **green** cards are considered the least difficult and permit movement of 1 space; **yellow** question cards are of medium difficulty and permit movement of 2 spaces; and **blue** question cards are considered the most difficult and permit movement of 3 spaces.

A correct answer makes it possible for the player to move. The color of the card chosen tells the player how many spaces to move. A roll of the die provides an additional move. Conversely, an **incorrect answer** freezes the player in place.

Example of a **correct answer** move:

Player answers BLUE question correctly. This entitles player to

1. move 3 spaces, roll the die, and
2. move the number rolled on the die

Example of an **incorrect answer** response:

Player answers BLUE question incorrectly. This entitles player to STAY in place; no move is allowed. Also, this player may not roll the die.

Rules of the Game

1. Choose a student to act as "tour guide." He or she will keep score and provide answer check from the color-coded answer sheets.
2. Place marker on START.
3. Roll die to determine first player.
4. Determine order of the other players.
5. First player chooses question card
   blue is the most difficult = 3 spaces
   yellow is of medium difficulty = 2 spaces
   green is of less difficulty = 1 space
   Movement if answered correctly.
6. Player answers the question
7. The tour guide checks the answer.
8. Correct answer?
   YES: Player moves ahead according to the difficulty of the question
   Player puts marker on place
   Player rolls die and moves ahead the number of spaces indicated
   Player passes the turn to next player
   NO: Player stays put. He or she cannot move ahead.
   Player passes turn to next player.
9. If player lands on a star, he or she must draw an orange chance card and do what it says. (Other uses for the chance cards can be decided on by using "Alternative Strategies.")

Alternative Strategies

The design of the game board makes it possible to select a variety of learning approaches. The different colors of stars on the board and the chance cards are intended to accommodate a number of playing strategies.

Alternative 1: All capital cities are starred in fold on the map, but not around the playing board. The players or the teacher could decide how to utilize this aspect of the game:

a. Player must place marker on capital on the map

Player will get two turns in a row if successful in locating the capital

Player will lose two turns if unable to locate the capital

b. Place marker on capital and draw chance card

Do as directed by the card

OR

c. Ignore the capital stars if you like

Alternative 2: The blue and green stars may also be utilized in a variety of ways:

a. A blue star demands that the player draw a chance card

b. A blue star demands that the player answer a blue question the next two plays

c. A green star could key student to questions made up by the teacher or students

OR

d. Blue and green stars could be ignored.

Latin America

Country	*Capital*
Mexico	Mexico City
Guatemala	Guatemala City
Belize	Belmopan
Honduras	Tegucigalpa
El Salvador	San Salvador
Nicaragua	Managua
Costa Rica	San José
Panama	Panama City
Colombia	Bogotá
Venezuela	Caracas
Guyana	Georgetown
Suriname	Paramaribo
French Guiana	Cayenne
Brazil	Brasília
Ecuador	Quito
Peru	Lima
Bolivia	Sucre–La Paz
Paraguay	Asunción
Uruguay	Montevideo
Chile	Santiago
Cuba	Havana
Jamaica	Kingston
Haiti	Port-au-Prince
Dominican Republic	Santo Domingo
Puerto Rico	San Juan

CHANCE CARDS—ORANGE

1. You won a contest playing the marimba. Move ahead 3 spaces.
2. You and your fellow mariachis need a new instrument. Move ahead 3 spaces and shop around.
3. Revolution erupts in Chile as you arrive. To reach the safety of the American embassy, you must go by back alleys. Lose 1 turn.
4. Your string bikini dissolves in the surf at Copacabana. Go back 4 spaces.
5. You discover the ruins of a pre-Columbian civilization that surpasses anything yet discovered in Latin America. Go ahead 4 spaces.
6. You have participated in an election on the winning side. Now you are minister of public works. Advance 5 spaces.
7. During the *macumba* rites, you go into a trance and an evil spirit possesses you. Go back 2 spaces.
8. In Argentina a gaucho teaches you how to use a bolo. You show exceptional ability. Advance 5 spaces.
9. You go to Rio for Carnival time. You dress as the starship *Enterprise* and win first prize in a contest. Advance 4 spaces.
10. On an excursion down the Amazon, you fall in and become a tasty morsel for a school of piranha. Go back to START for reincarnation.
11. You become the sixth Latin American writer to win the Nobel Prize in literature. Advance 6 spaces. (Name the other five and advance an additional 3 spaces.)
12. You have all the luck! Even though the volcano Chimborazo has been inactive for years, as you pursue the path to Quito, lava flows across the road. Go back 3 spaces for detour.
13. The llama you lassoed runs away. Go back 3 spaces and find it.
14. The CIA sends you to Cuba to poison Fidel's cigars. Fidel gives up smoking and the CIA transfers you to Outer Mongolia. Go back 3 spaces.
15. You and your fellow tin miners go out on strike. You toss a stone, but your aim is terrible and it hits your cousin. Now you can't go home. Go into hiding in La Paz. Lose 1 turn.
16. You are a ship's captain in a terrible storm in the Strait of Magellan—also know as the "graveyard of ships." Because of your superior skill, you make it through. Advance 5 spaces.
17. Your oil company brings in a gusher in Lake Maracaibo and you get a raise. Advance 4 spaces.

GREEN QUESTION AND ANSWER SHEET
(least difficult)

1. In some parts of Latin America the cult of male superiority in which the concept of honor and self-pride are the two most important ingredients is known as _____.

Answer: *machismo*

2. What meeting place is found in the center of many Latin American towns?

Answer: the town square or the plaza

3. My father is a Spaniard and my mother is black. What term would be used to refer to my racial type?

Answer: mulatto

4. The major languages of Latin America are _____.

Answer: Spanish, Portuguese

5. Why is the Panama Canal so important to some nations today?

Answer: It shortens the distance that must be traveled by ocean-going vessels.

6. What country in Latin America speaks Portuguese as its primary language? Why is this?

Answer: Brazil, because it was settled primarily by the Portuguese.

7. How would the following belief system affect family size in Latin America?

- a belief that children provide future social security
- a belief that children will help with the work
- a belief that children represent manliness and womanliness
- the possibility that large numbers of children will die

Answer: This belief system would tend to cause parents to have many children.

8. What two things were particularly considered to be marks of beauty among the Mayans?

Answer: flat heads and crossed eyes

9. Latin American Indians used the "slash-and-burn" system. To what does this refer? Choose one of the following:

a. war
b. mining
c. agriculture

Answer: agriculture

10. Who was the famous designer of the capital of Brazil?

Answer: Oscar Niemeyer

11. Name a formerly popular dance that originated in Latin America.

Answer: tango, rumba, samba, cha-cha-cha

12. Name the two landlocked countries of Latin America.

Answer: Paraguay, Bolivia

13. What country mines most of the quartz that is used in manufacturing radios, telephones, television sets, and prisms?

Answer: Brazil

14. What forms the boundary between Texas and Mexico?

Answer: the Rio Grande

15. You have just eaten dinner. This was the menu: turkey, beans, corn fritters, and squash casserole. You also had tapioca pudding for dessert. Name the things in your meal that did not originate in the New World.

Answer: All of these foods originated in the New World.

16. Latin American football (*fútbol*) is known as _____ in the U.S.

Answer: soccer

17. Which of the countries of Latin America are still under the control of foreign powers?

Answer: French Guiana.

18. You are going to visit your cousin in Buenos Aires in July. What kind of clothing would you take with you and why would you choose this type?

Answer: Below the equator it is winter during our summer. Take warm clothes.

19. Why do we call the whole area south of the U.S. border "Latin America"?

Answer: The languages—French, Spanish, and Portuguese—spoken in this area originated from the Latin language.

20. The first Indian civilization actually to come into contact with the Spaniards was the _____.

Answer: Maya

21. My father is Portuguese and my mother is Indian. What term would be used to refer to my racial type?

Answer: mestizo

22. What forms the boundary between Argentina and Chile?

Answer: the Andes Mountains

23. Who is the leader of Cuba now, and how long has this leader had this position?

Answer: Fidel Castro, since 1959

24. Who was the first native Indian president of Mexico?

Answer: Benito Juárez

YELLOW QUESTION AND ANSWER SHEET
(medium difficulty)

1. Name three major accomplishments of the ancient Maya Indians.

Answer: paper making, concept of zero, a written system of numbers, sea trade, travel, massive stone pyramids, roads, religion, astronomy, calendar

2. Some of the Aztec Indians bowed down to the Spaniards when the Spaniards invaded the Indians. What legend inspired this action?

Answer: Legend said that an Aztec god, Quetzalcoatl, would return in the year of his birth. The Aztecs believed Cortés to be this god.

3. In Chile you will find people with names of the following origin:

a. Spanish
b. Indian
c. English
d. Irish
e. German
f. Basque
g. Scottish
h. Slavic
i. Italian
j. Arabic
k. Chinese
l. Japanese

Choose the answer group you think is correct:

1. a and b   2. a, b, and c   3. all

Answer: Number 3 is correct because Chile has many different types of people living there.

4. Give at least 3 ways in which the Catholic church has influenced social life in Latin America.

Answer: dating, family, marriage, divorce, birth, death, fiestas, holidays

5. You are traveling from São Luís de Maranhão, Brazil, to Manaus, Brazil. Can you make this trip on a ship? Explain your answer.

Answer: Yes, you can travel by ship because the cities are located on the Amazon River, which is navigable between these two points.

6. What were the main reasons for the exploration of the New World? Give at least 3.

Answer: gold, God, and glory

7. The 100-foot-tall figure of Christ the Redeemer was placed on top of Mount Corcovado in 1931. What might this tell you about the value system of the Brazilians at that time?

Answer: It commemorates the first century of Brazil's political independence. It tells you that the people place high value on religion.

8. Name three major accomplishments of the Aztecs.

Answer: agriculture, written language, paper, sculpture, architecture

9. Is the following statement TRUE or FALSE? Some indigenous peoples of the Andes have a celebration if a child dies before its first birthday.

Answer: TRUE. They are happy because the child has entered heaven and has been spared the rigors of a hard life.

10. Portugal praticed mercantilism in Brazil. What does this statement mean?

Answer: Portugal expected Brazil to exist for the benefit of Portugal (mother country). The Portuguese took Brazil's resources and used them for their own benefit.

11. The early explorers always took along a priest with them. Why?

Answer: They felt it was the duty of the Spanish Catholic church to convert more souls to Christianity.

12. Arrange the following events in the order in which they happened:
  a. Blacks imported for work on farms in Latin America
  b. Monroe Doctrine announced
  c. Cusco was an important city
  d. Line of Demarcation established

e. Gold and silver sent to Spain
f. Many advanced Indian civilizations
g. Revolutions led by Father Hidalgo, Simón Bolívar, and José de San Martín
h. Numerous Latin American nations formed

Answer: f, c, d, e, a, g, b, h

13. Bolivia is divided into 3 distinct regions: the *altiplano* (plano), the *yungas* (valleys), and the *llanos* (lowlands). Tell the two differences you might find in these regions.

Answer: Any of these would be correct: elevation differences, clothing differences, climatic differences, transportation difference, dialect differences, vegetation differences, crop differences

14. You are a Brazilian, and your belief is in a religion that originated in Africa. You buy a chicken at the local meat market and plan to offer it to the spirits as part of a religious ceremony. What might your belief system be called?

Answer: voodoo or *macumba*

15. What is the name that we might give today to the Mayan type of government and who were its leaders? Explain your answer.

Answer: feudal theocracy; the priest class ruled

16. Most of the Latin American countries were settled by the Spaniards. Why didn't the other countries of Europe claim large areas in Latin America?

Answer: The Line of Demarcation drawn by the pope in 1494 separated the land to be explored between the Spanish and the Portuguese.

17. What is the meaning of the statement spoken by an Andean woman: "I complied and had 12 *apostles*. Three of the twelve are living."

Answer: The woman believed she delivered or bore children for Christianity. Only 3 of the 12 children to whom she gave birth survived.

18. What class of people did the conquistadors represent? Explain your answer.

Answer: soldiers of fortune, often uneducated

19. Give at least 2 major effects the mountains have had on the development of South America.

Answer: separate the people and make travel difficult. Even today, few roads, especially from one capital to another

20. Colombia at one time was dependent on a single crop, coffee. What situations could contribute to this being an unwise economic policy?

Answer: Answers such as these are acceptable:

a. failure of major purchaser to buy product
b. crop failure
c. new markets opening up elsewhere and providing competition
d. change in people's needs

21. Your father has just bought 100 acres of land on the Amazon River. He plans to clear the land and have a truck farm. Will he be successful? Explain.

Answer: The Amazon River land is easily leached, and the land would not easily yield crops for very long.

22. You are a Latin American Indian living before the Europeans came. Name 4 important things associated with your way of life.

Answer: hammock, bark cloth, dugout canoe, hollow drum, pottery, terracing, corn, rubber, calendar, art, etc.

23. Name any three famous Spanish or Portuguese explorers/discoverers of the 1491-1620 period.

Answer: Cortés, Columbus, Ponce de León, Balboa, Magellan

24. Ecuador has important amounts of the following: cocoa, maize, beans, squash, oil, rice, bananas, coffee, palm oil, sugar, fish, wheat, potatoes, and forest areas. What reason can you give for the country's having widespread malnutrition?

Answer: Any of the following types of response are acceptable:

a. lack of distribution due to poor transportation facilities
b. overpopulation and lack of employment in cities

c. subsistence agriculture
d. underdeveloped economic structure

25. Name at least 3 of the cultural groups that have influenced the development of Brazil to a greater or lesser extent.

Answer: Portuguese, Moors, Indians, Africans, Germans, Italians, Japanese, Polish

26. Name at least 2 liberators of South American countries in the struggle for independence from Spain.

Answer: Bolívar, San Martín, O'Higgins

27. Name 3 of the major Indian civilizations of Middle America.

Answer: Aztecs, Mayas, Toltecs, Olmecs, Mixtecs, Teotihuacanos, Zapotecs

BLUE QUESTION AND ANSWER SHEET
(most difficult)

1. Which word—*climate* or *status*—is the reason for the number of skirts an Andean woman has, the color of her clothing, and the shape of her hat?

Answer: status

2. At present, Latin America is important for many reasons. Name three.

Answer: Many different answers are correct. Panama Canal, rich cultural heritage, many natural resources, economic ties with U.S.; fast-growing population; many Latins come to United States; a superb place for tourism

3. In a country where identification of your kindred group is important, what kind of cultural practice, in relation to names, might you develop to provide a double check on family groups?

Answer: The use of two last names would key the person to your mother and father's group. This way everyone knows which groups you came from on both sides of the family.

4. Peru has lots of copper. What might happen in Peru if the U.S. decided to stop buying copper from African nations and buy entirely from Peru? Give at least 2 things that might happen.

Answer: Several different answers are correct.

a. The Peruvian economy would probably benefit greatly.
b. More jobs would become available.
c. More skilled technicians would be needed.
d. More education would be needed.
e. Indians would leave the land for jobs.
f. There would be heavy demands made on all facilities.

5. Give two reasons for Juan Perón's early popularity as president of Argentina.

Answer: Any of the following:

a. He championed the cause of the *descamisados*, or poor working people
b. He took Argentine industry from the hands of foreign control.
c. He built up Argentine agriculture and industry and benefits for workers
d. His wife, Eva, was idolized by the masses.

6. Spanish dignitaries always traveled with their musicians. Name at least 2 functions at which they might have played.

Answer: entertainment (fun); celebrations; funerals; war preparations; weddings

7. What did the Monroe Doctrine state?

Answer: It opposed European intervention in the affairs of the Americas. It also reaffirmed the U.S. intention not to interfere in European affairs. The doctrine was intended to stop the Holy Alliance from aiding Spain in a reconquest of the newly independent Latin American republics.

8. What do the following Latin Americans have in common: Pablo Neruda, Gabriela Mistral, Miguel Angel Asturias, and Gabriel García Márquez?

Answer: They have all won the Nobel Prize for Literature.

9. Give 2 reasons why you feel the Maya gradually disappeared.

Answer: Give any well-thought-out answer: natural disaster, earthquake, hurricane, etc.; destructive wars; depleted land; illness (we don't really know)

10. Chilean poetry has a long and distinguished tradition. Before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock, Chile was the subject of one of the New World's few epic poems, written by Alonso de Ercilla. What was the title of the poem and what does it mean?

Answer: *La Araucana*. The Araucanos were a native Indian people of southern South America.

11. The Amazon Basin contains uninhabited jungle and swamp that many people feel must not be disturbed. Why do they feel this way?

Answer: The Amazon River is one of the last natural areas of reproduction for animals and things that live in the swamp. It is also believed that the Amazon has something to do with the rain cycle—moisture from the river rises to form rain clouds that return the moisture to the earth.

12. Why is this statement false? "Bogotá is ideally situated, because it is in the center of the republic."

Answer: The eastern half of Colombia, where Bogotá is located, is a long distance from three-fourths of the country's population.

13. Why are there no great archeologial sites in northern Mexico like those found farther south?

Answer: The arid terrain offers no basis for an agricultural community. Therefore, no large cities developed, hence, no archeological ruins.

14. Suppose you were to visit a friend in Lima and he invited you to a poetry recital. Would this be unusual? Why?

Answer: No, it would not be at all unusual because poetry is much more a part of "popular culture" in Latin America than it is in the U.S.

15. You have a friend who says that Latin American Indians in some areas have been practicing a form of communism for a long time. What does he mean by this statement, and would you agree or disagree? Why?

Answer: Some Latin American Indians considered all land to be commonly owned by all the tribe; thus all the tribe used the land. When there were a lot of Indians living in one place, the central authority decided who could cultivate the land.

16. Once the Panama Canal was a major political issue. Why?

Answer: The Panamanians wanted a new treaty that would give them control over the canal, and the U.S. State Department negotiated a new treaty in 1978. The agreement provides for gradual takeover of the canal and the withdrawal of U.S. troops, to be completed by 1999. The permanent neutrality of the canal is to be guaranteed

RIO GRANDE

HOME

START

CAPE HORN

STRAIT OF MAGELLAN

CONCEPCION

*SANTIAGO

*BUENOS AIRES

*MONTEVIDEO

PAMPAS

MT. ACONCAGUA

MONTERREY

GUADALAJARA

*MEXICO CITY

ACAPULCO

VERACRUZ

CHICHEN ITZA

TIKAL

BELIZE

*GUATEMALA CITY

*SAN SALVADOR

ANTIGUA

*TEGUCIGALPA

*MANAGUA

*SAN JOSE

*PANAMA CITY

LAKE TITICACA

*SUCRE

*LA PAZ

ANDES MOUNTAINS

MACHU PICCHU

*LIMA

CUZCO

*ASUNCION

RIO DE JANEIRO

SAO PAULO

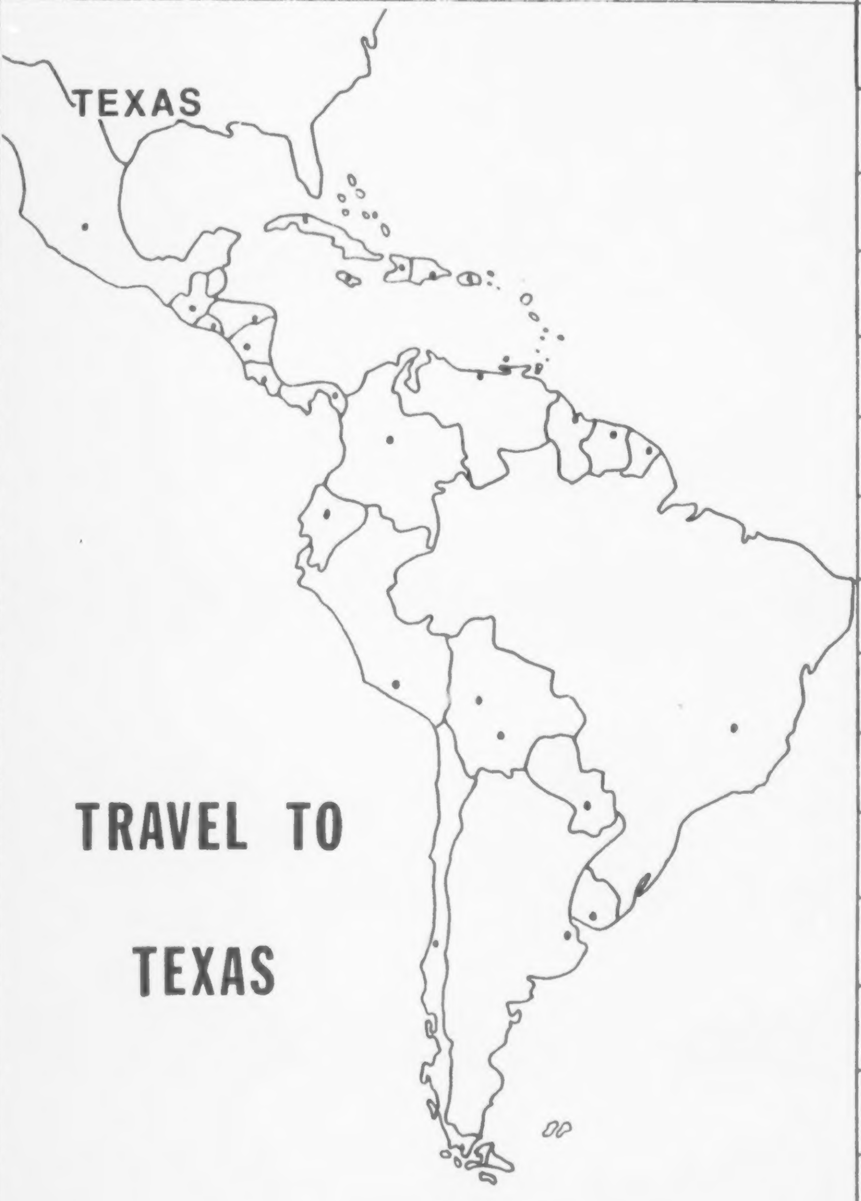
*BRASILIA

RECIFE

AMAZON RIVER

*CAYENNE

*PARAMARIBO



TRAVEL TO TEXAS

*KINGSTON

GUANTANAMO

*HAVANA

*PORT AU PRINCE

*CIUDAD TRUJILLO

SAN JUAN

*PORT OF SPAIN

GUAYAQUIL

*QUITO

*BOGOTA

LAKE MARACAIBO

*CARACAS

*GEORGETOWN

2.

PUZZLES

General Directions for Seek-and-Find Puzzles

The basic format for seek-and-find puzzles is a grid of letters in which are hidden specific words. The words that are to be found are either listed at the bottom or top (see puzzle A) or must be supplied by the student as the correct response to fill-in questions (see puzzles B and C).

Whenever possible, the following directions should be included right on the puzzle. Notice that the italicized words will vary according to the puzzle; that is, you might want the students to search for people or products instead of countries.

"The following *names* of Latin American *countries* are hidden in the puzzle. All the letters for one *name* will be in a straight line, read from the bottom up, the top down, from right to left, left to right, or diagonally. When you find a *name* , circle it. Look carefully and see if you can find them all."

You can easily create your own seek-and-find puzzles using Latin American leaders, capitals, etc. Or, if you wish, you can encourage the students to make their own puzzles for the class. These puzzles are fun for the student and reinforce this type of information.

Puzzle A—grade level 6-9 (Latin American countries)

Puzzle B*—grade level 7-9 (government, economics, values, ideas, and creative expression)

Puzzle C*—grade level 7-9 (racial composition and social class)

General Directions for Crossword Puzzles

Rules for working crossword puzzles are well known and need not be reviewed here. However, a brief word on making your own crossword puzzle might be useful. Begin with a blank grid of the approximate size you wish your puzzle to be. Then, using a list of words or terms that you wish to include in the puzzle (glossaries are helpful), start fitting the words onto the grid. Numbering should begin at the upper left-hand corner and proceed across the puzzle from right to left, ending at the bottom right-hand corner. Each space that is the first letter of a word (either across or down) receives a number. When formulating your clues, try to keep them short and precise with regard to the information you are seeking. The students will also enjoy making their own crossword puzzles. Give them blank grids and see what they can come up with.

Puzzle D*—grade level 7-9 (Latin American countries and capitals)

Puzzle E*—grade level 7-9 (Latin American Indians before the Europeans)

*Note to teacher: these puzzles are based on the text *Latin AmericAnswer: Its Land, Story and People* (Latin American Curriculum Project, the University of Texas at Austin). Check the puzzles carefully to be sure that you have covered all the necessary information if you are not using this text with your class.

SEEK-AND-FIND
LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

María Garza-Lubeck

LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES: The names of Latin American countries listed at the bottom of the page are hidden in the puzzle below. All the letters for one name will be in a straight line read from the bottom up, the top down, from right to left, left to right, or diagonally. When you find a name, circle it. Look carefully and see if you can find them all.

Word List

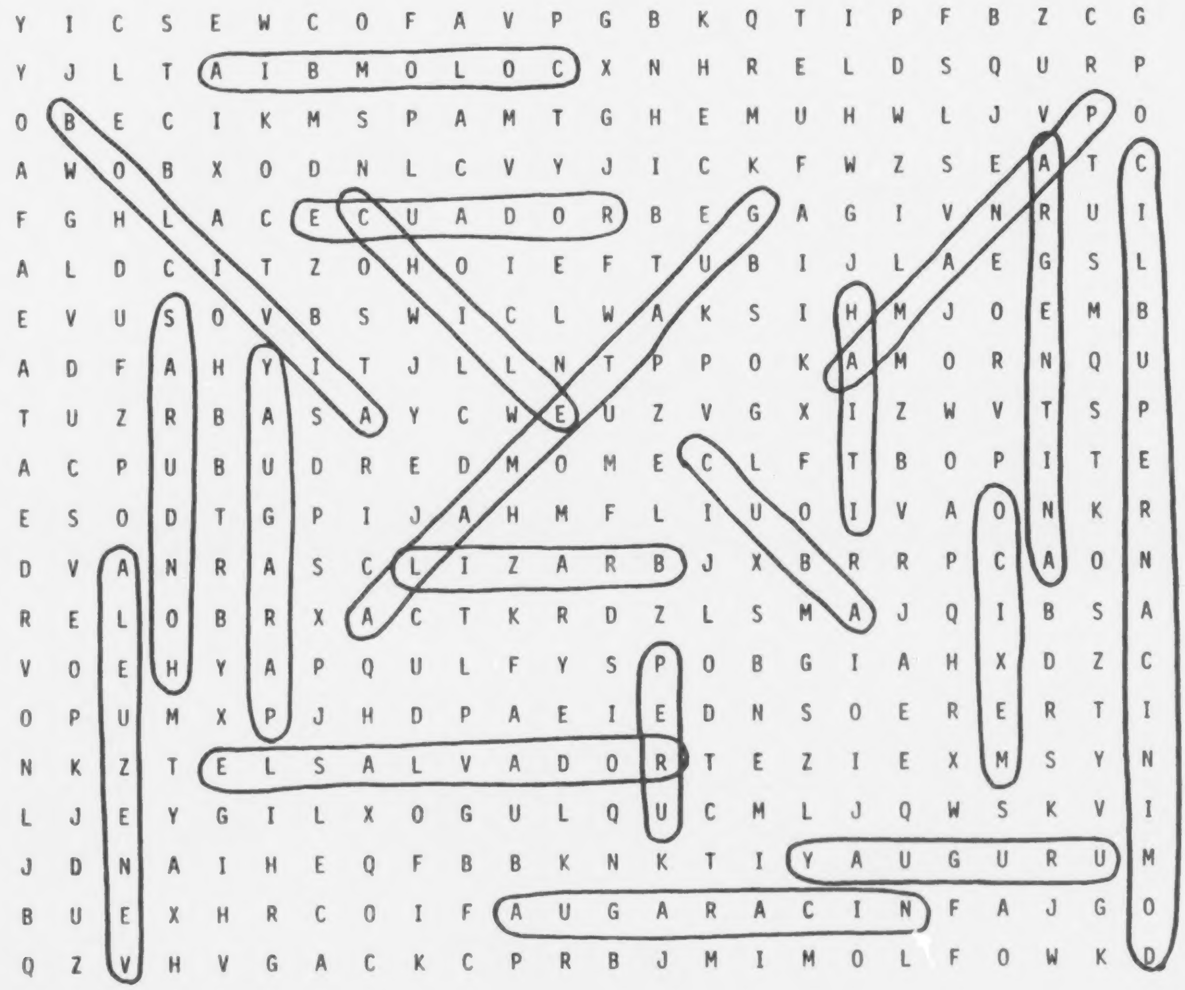
MEXICO
ECUADOR
CHILE
CUBA
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
URUGUAY
BRAZIL

GUATEMALA
EL SALVADOR
COSTA RICA
HONDURAS
VENEZUELA
PANAMA
PERU

NICARAGUA
ARGENTINA
COLOMBIA
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
HAITI

Y	I	C	S	E	W	C	O	F	A	V	P	G	B	K	Q	T	I	P	F	B	Z	C	G
Y	J	L	T	A	I	B	M	O	L	O	C	X	N	H	R	E	L	D	S	Q	U	R	P
O	B	E	C	I	K	M	S	P	A	M	T	G	H	E	M	U	H	W	L	J	V	P	O
A	W	O	B	X	O	D	N	L	C	V	Y	J	I	C	K	F	W	Z	S	E	A	T	C
F	G	H	L	A	C	E	C	U	A	D	O	R	B	E	G	A	G	I	V	N	R	U	I
A	L	D	C	I	T	Z	O	H	O	I	E	F	T	U	B	I	J	L	A	E	G	S	L
E	V	U	S	O	V	B	S	W	I	C	L	W	A	K	S	I	H	M	J	O	E	M	B
A	D	F	A	H	Y	I	T	J	L	L	N	T	P	P	O	K	A	M	O	R	N	Q	U
T	U	Z	R	B	A	S	A	Y	C	W	E	U	Z	V	G	X	I	Z	W	V	T	S	P
A	C	P	U	B	U	D	R	E	D	M	O	M	E	C	L	F	T	B	O	P	I	T	E
E	S	O	D	T	G	P	I	J	A	H	M	F	L	I	U	O	I	V	A	O	N	K	R
D	V	A	N	R	A	S	C	L	I	Z	A	R	B	J	X	B	R	R	P	C	A	O	N
R	E	L	O	B	R	X	A	C	T	K	R	D	Z	L	S	M	A	J	Q	I	B	S	A
V	O	E	H	Y	A	P	Q	U	L	F	Y	S	P	O	B	G	I	A	H	X	D	Z	C
O	P	U	M	X	P	J	H	D	P	A	E	I	E	D	N	S	O	E	R	E	R	T	I
N	K	Z	T	E	L	S	A	L	V	A	D	O	R	T	E	Z	I	E	X	M	S	Y	N
L	J	E	Y	G	I	L	X	O	G	U	L	Q	U	C	M	L	J	Q	W	S	K	V	I
J	D	N	A	I	H	E	Q	F	B	B	K	N	K	T	I	Y	A	U	G	U	R	U	M
B	U	E	X	H	R	C	O	I	F	A	U	G	A	R	A	C	I	N	F	A	J	G	O
Q	Z	V	H	V	G	A	C	K	C	P	R	B	J	M	I	M	O	L	F	O	W	K	D

LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES: Key



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Y I C S E W C O F A V P G B K Q T I P F B Z C G
Y J L T A I B M O L O C X N H R E L D S Q U R P
O B E C I K M S P A M T G H E M U H W L J V P O
A W O B X O D N L C V Y J I C K F W Z S E A T C
F G H L A C E C U A D O R B E G A G I V N R U I
A L D C I T Z O H O I E F T U B I J L A E G S L
E V U S O V B S W I C L W A K S I H M J O E M B
A D F A H Y I T J L L N T P P O K A M O R N Q U
T U Z R B A S A Y C W E U Z V G X I Z W V T S P
A C P U B U D R E D M O M E C L F T B O P I T E
E S O D T G P I J A H M F L I U O I V A O N K R
D V A N R A S C L I Z A R B J X B R R P C A O N
R E L O B R X A C T K R D Z L S M A J Q I B S A
V O E H Y A P Q U L F Y S P O B G I A H X D Z C
O P U M X P J H D P A E I E D N S O E R E R T I
N K Z T E L S A L V A D O R T E Z I E X M S Y N
L J E Y G I L X O G U L Q U C M L J Q W S K V I
J D N A I H E Q F B B K N K T I Y A U G U R U M
B U E X H R C O I F A U G A R A C I N F A J G O
Q Z V H V G A C K C P R B J M I M O L F O W K D
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SEEK-AND-FIND
GOVERNMENT, ECONOMICS, VALUES, IDEAS, AND CREATIVE EXPRESSION

Michael Winslow

Answer the questions first. Then find these words hidden in the puzzle. All the letters for one word will be in a straight line, read from the bottom up, the top down, from right to left, left to right, or diagonally. When you find a word, circle it. Look carefully and see if you can find them all.

1. Most Latin American governments are very _____.

2. Latin American economies are mainly based on _____.

3. _____ is Latin America's most important trading partner.

4. Agricultural output in Latin America is _____.

5. Life expectancy in Latin America is _____ than in the United States.

6. Most people are moving to the _____ areas in search of a better life.

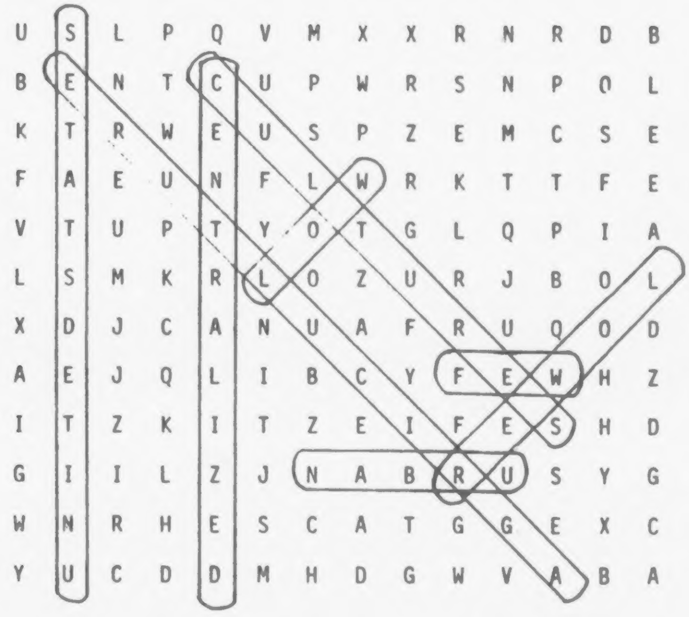
7. Most of the land in Latin America is owned by a _____ people.

8. A blending of _____ can be seen in Latin American art, architecture, music, and literature.

U	S	L	O	Q	V	M	X	X	R	N	R	D	B
B	E	N	T	C	U	P	W	R	S	N	P	O	L
K	T	R	W	E	U	S	P	Z	E	M	C	S	E
F	A	E	U	N	F	L	W	R	K	T	T	F	E
V	T	U	P	T	Y	O	T	G	L	Q	P	I	A
L	S	M	K	R	L	O	Z	U	R	J	B	O	L
X	D	J	C	A	N	U	A	F	R	U	Q	O	D
A	E	J	Q	L	I	B	C	Y	F	E	W	H	Z
I	T	Z	K	I	T	Z	E	I	F	E	S	H	D
G	I	I	L	Z	J	N	A	B	R	U	S	Y	G
W	N	R	H	E	S	C	A	T	G	G	E	X	C
Y	U	C	D	D	M	H	D	G	W	V	A	B	A

GOVERNMENT, ECONOMICS, VALUES, IDEAS, AND CREATIVE EXPRESSION: Key

1. centralized
2. agriculture
3. The United States
4. low
5. lower
6. urban
7. few
8. cultures



U	S	L	P	Q	V	M	X	X	R	N	R	D	B
B	E	N	T	C	U	P	W	R	S	N	P	O	L
K	T	R	W	E	U	S	P	Z	E	M	C	S	E
F	A	E	U	N	F	L	W	R	K	T	T	F	E
V	T	U	P	T	Y	O	T	G	L	Q	P	I	A
L	S	M	K	R	L	O	Z	U	R	J	B	O	L
X	D	J	C	A	N	U	A	F	R	U	Q	O	D
A	E	J	Q	L	I	B	C	Y	F	E	W	H	Z
I	T	Z	K	I	T	Z	E	I	F	E	S	H	D
G	I	I	L	Z	J	N	A	B	R	U	S	Y	G
W	N	R	H	E	S	C	A	T	G	G	E	X	C
Y	U	C	D	D	M	H	D	G	W	V	A	B	A

SEEK-AND-FIND
RACIAL COMPOSITION AND SOCIAL CLASS

Michael Winslow

Answer the questions first. Then find these words hidden in the puzzle. All the letters for one word will be in a straight line, read from the bottom up, the top down, from right to left, left to right, or diagonally. When you find a word, circle it. Look carefully and see if you can find them all.

1. The male colonists intermarried with the native women because the European _____ did not accompany them.

2. More than half of the populations of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina is of _____ origin.

3. In Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Cuba, Brazil, and Venezuela at least one-third of the people are of _____ origin.

4, 5. _____ and _____ are a majority of the population in Mexico, Central America, Paraguay, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia.

6. True or False: Indian heritage in Mexico is, for the most part, respected and a source of pride. _____

7. Discrimination is based more on _____ than on race.

8. The _____ class is the largest social class in Latin America.

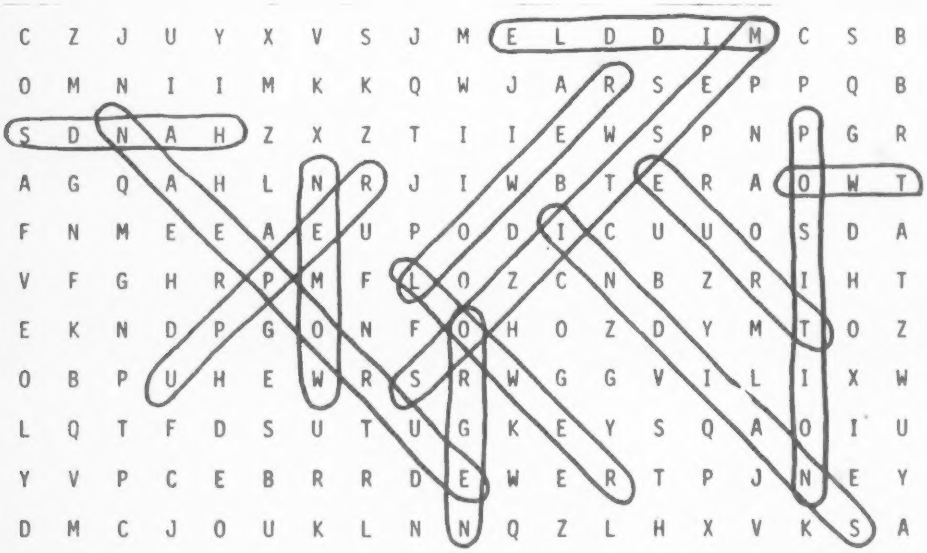
9. In the upper class, work with the _____ is avoided.

10. The _____ class tries to live like the upper but cannot afford it.

C	Z	J	U	Y	X	V	S	J	M	E	L	D	D	I	M	C	S	B
O	M	N	I	I	M	K	K	Q	W	J	A	R	S	E	P	P	Q	B
S	D	N	A	H	Z	X	Z	T	I	I	E	W	S	P	N	P	G	R
A	G	Q	A	H	L	N	R	J	I	W	B	T	E	R	A	O	W	T
F	N	M	E	E	A	E	U	P	O	D	I	C	U	U	O	S	D	A
V	F	G	H	R	P	M	F	L	O	Z	C	N	B	Z	R	I	H	T
E	K	N	D	P	G	O	N	F	O	H	O	X	D	Y	M	T	O	Z
O	B	P	U	H	E	W	R	S	R	W	G	G	V	I	L	I	X	W
L	Q	T	F	D	S	U	T	U	G	D	E	Y	S	Q	A	O	I	U
Y	V	P	C	E	B	R	R	D	E	W	E	R	T	P	J	N	E	Y
D	M	C	J	O	U	K	L	N	N	Q	Z	L	H	X	V	K	S	A

RACIAL COMPOSITION AND SOCIAL CLASS: Key

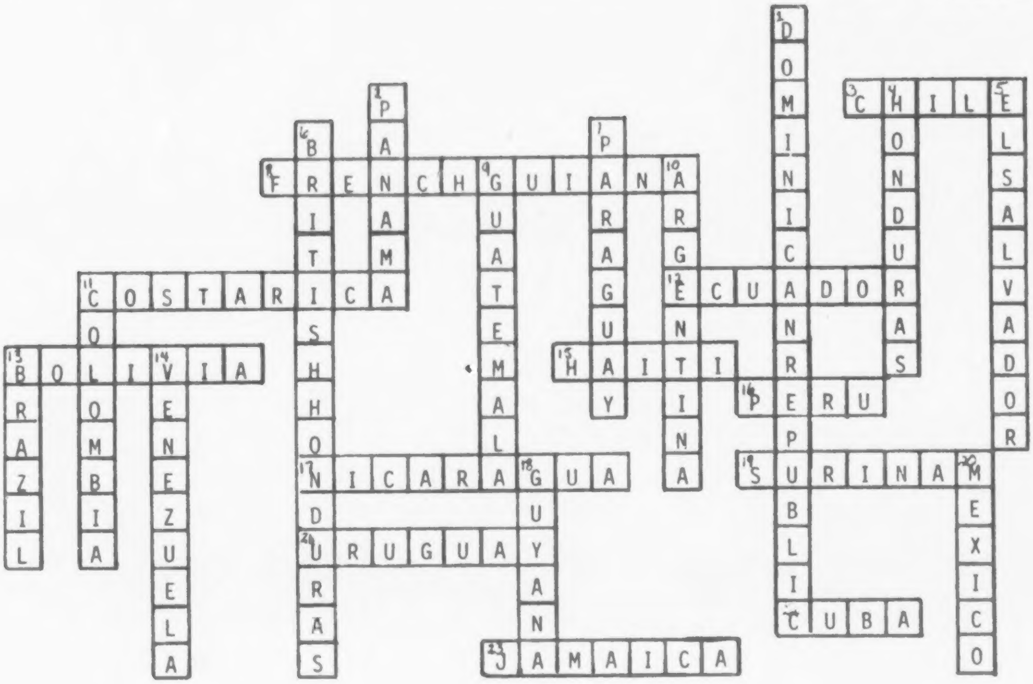
1. women
2. European
3. Negro
4, 5. Indians, mestizos
6. true
7. position, culture
8. lower
9. hands
10. middle



C	Z	J	U	Y	X	V	S	J	M	E	L	D	D	I	M	C	S	B
O	M	N	I	I	M	K	K	Q	W	J	A	R	S	E	P	P	Q	B
S	D	N	A	H	Z	X	Z	T	I	I	E	W	S	P	N	P	G	R
A	G	Q	A	H	L	N	R	J	I	W	B	T	E	R	A	O	W	T
F	N	M	E	E	A	E	U	P	O	D	I	C	U	U	O	S	D	A
V	F	G	H	R	P	M	F	L	O	Z	C	N	B	Z	R	I	H	T
E	K	N	D	P	G	O	N	F	O	H	O	Z	D	Y	M	T	O	Z
O	B	P	U	H	E	W	R	S	R	W	G	G	V	I	L	I	X	W
L	Q	T	F	D	S	U	T	U	G	K	E	Y	S	Q	A	O	I	U
Y	V	P	C	E	B	R	R	D	E	W	E	R	T	P	J	N	E	Y
D	M	C	J	O	U	K	L	N	N	Q	Z	L	H	X	V	K	S	A

CROSSWORD
LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES AND CAPITALS

Michael Winslow


DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
PANAMA
CHILE
HONDURAS
EL SALVADOR
BRITISH HONDURAS
PARAGUAY
FRENCH GUIANA
GUATEMALA
ARGENTINA
COSTA RICA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
BOLIVIA
BRAZIL
VENEZUELA
HAITI
PERU
NICARAGUA
GUYANA
SURINAM
MEXICO
URUGUAY
CUBA
JAMAICA

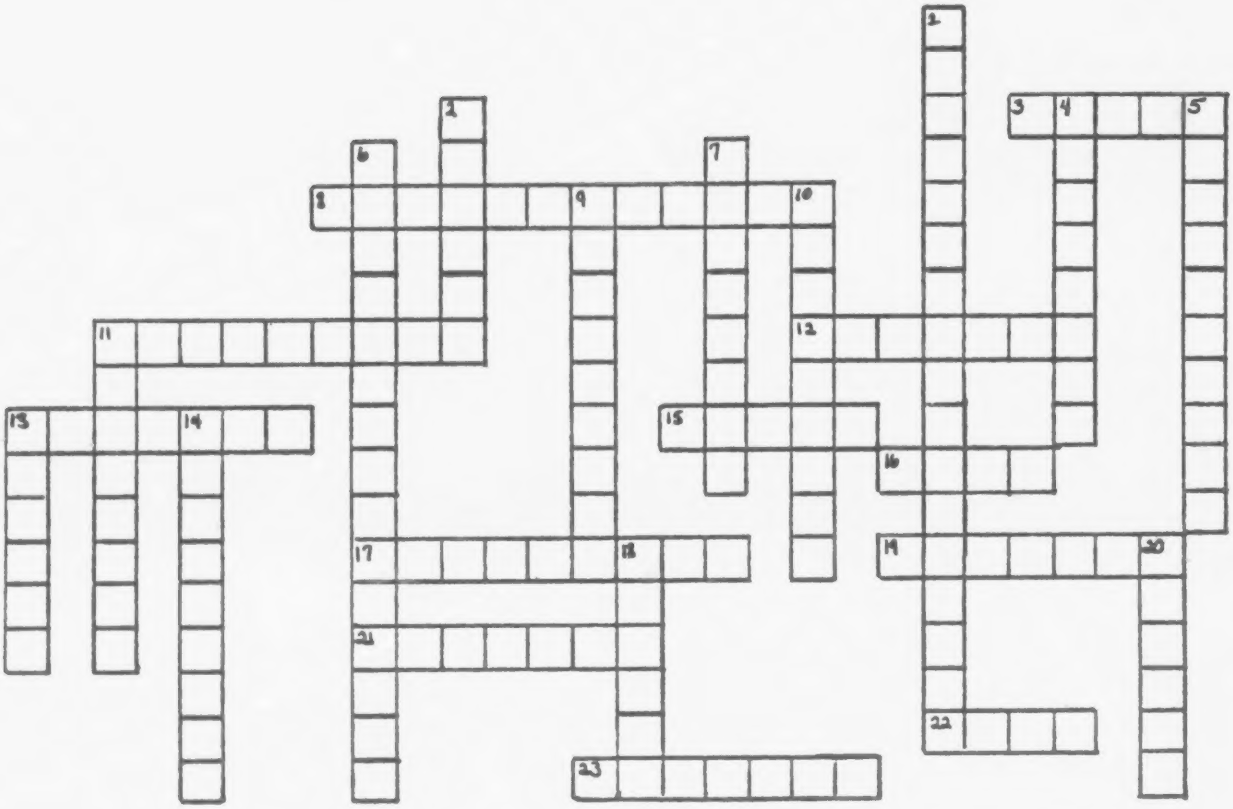
Across

3. The capital city is Santiago
8. The capital city is Cayenne (2 words)
11. Latin American country that shares a border with Panama (2 words)
12. Equator (Sp.); also country name
13. Country that has two capital cities
15. The capital city is Port-au-Prince
16. The Andes Mountains divide this country
17. The country south of Honduras
19. The capital city is Paramaribo
21. The capital city is Montevideo
22. The Latin American country about 100 miles from Florida
23. The country that is an island in the Caribbean

Down

1. The country that shares an island with Haiti (2 words)
2. Southernmost Latin American country in North America
4. The capital city is Tegucigalpa
5. The capital city is San Salvador (2 words)
6. The country south of the Yucatan in Mexico (2 words)
7. The capital city is Asunción
9. The country directly south of New Orleans, Louisiana
10. Isabel Perón was president of this country
11. Coffee is an important export of this country
13. The largest country in Latin America
14. The Orinoco River is in this country
18. The country east of Venezuela
20. Latin American country south of the Rio

LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES AND CAPITALS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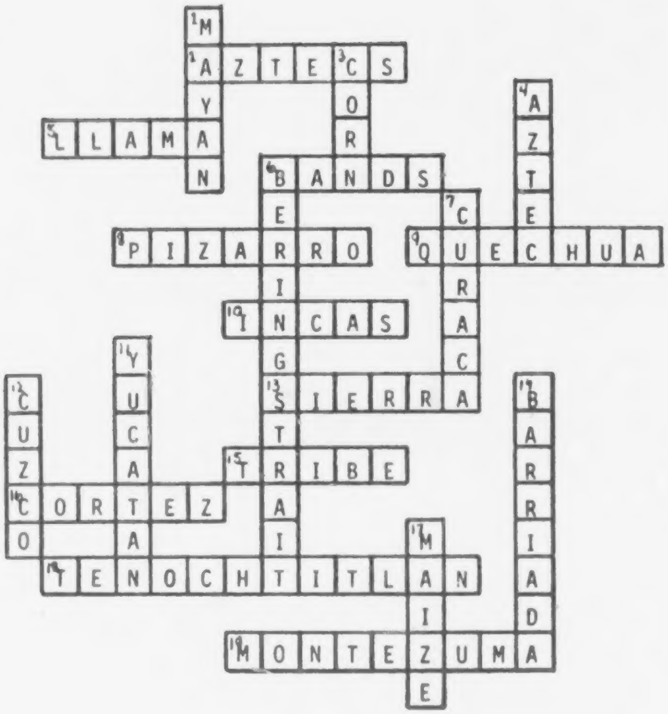
CROSSWORD
LATIN AMERICAN INDIANS BEFORE THE EUROPEANS CAME

Michael Winslow


MAYAN
AZTECS
CORN
AZTEC
LLAMA
BANDS
BERING STRAIT
CURACA
PIZARRO
QUECHUA
INCAS
YUCATA
CUZCO
SIERRA
BARRIADA
TRIBE
CORTEZ
MAIZE
TENOCHTITLAN
MONTEZUMA

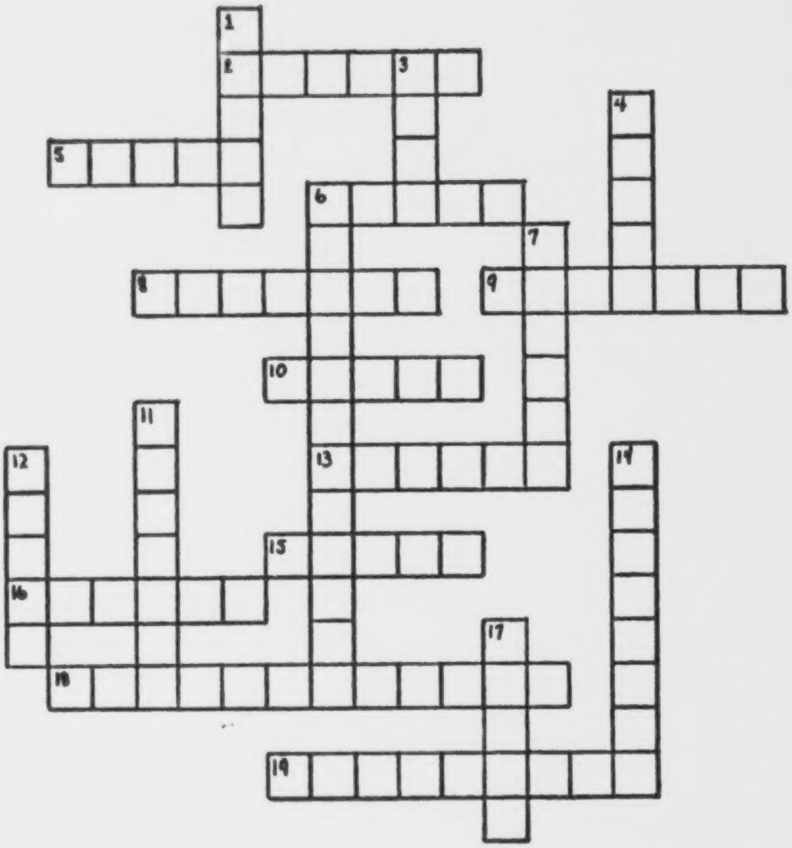
Across

2. The most warlike Indians
5. Domesticated beast of burden in Andes
6. Groups of Indian families
8. Conquered the Incas in 1531
9. Language and other name of Incas
10. Indian empire from Ecuador to Central Chile
13. Highland (Sp.)
15. Bands of Indians
16. Conquered Aztecs in 1519
18. Capital city of Aztecs
19. Ruler of Aztecs

Down

1. Civilization first developed in Guatemala, then moved to Yucatan
3. Indian cultures in Mexico, Guatemala, Andes based on this vegetable
4. Indian civilization in Mexico
6. Probable origin of Indian migration to Western Hemisphere (2 words)
7. Lord, head of Indian village
11. Peninsula in Mexico
12. Capital city of Incas
14. Shantytown community (Sp.)
17. Corn

LATIN AMERICAN INDIANS BEFORE THE EUROPEANS CAME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3.

RESEARCH SKILL EXERCISES

The following research skill exercises have three overall objectives: (1) to familiarize students with the various reference materials available; (2) to develop competence in the use of these materials; and (3) to acquire general knowledge about Latin America.

The selection of exercises included here is limited. The teacher is therefore encouraged to develop his or her own skill sheets focusing on the specific needs of the class. When developing skill exercises it is important to consider the following: (1) availability of the references for student use; (2) the specific features of the references that need to be brought to the student's attention so that he or she may develop the necessary competency in locating information in the source; and (3) the format; that is, although the skill is necessary, it doesn't have to be boring. Be creative!

A. *Reference Skill Study Sheets*
Grade level: 10-12

B. *Mexico Map Exercise*
Grade level: 8-10

C. *How the U.S. Media (Radio, TV, Newspaper, Magazine) View Current Events in Latin America*
Grade level: 10-12

D. *Country and Fact Grid*
Grade level: Adaptable

REFERENCE SKILL STUDY SHEETS

Melanie Treviño

(The following exercises were kept from the previous edition because of their usefulness as a model. Teachers with access to more current source materials are urged to update the exercises.)

I.

Type of Reference Work: Encyclopedia
Bibliographic Information: *Encyclopedia Americana*, 1975 edition

Exercise:

1. According to the *Americana* index, the main article on Cuba is in volume ___ and begins on page ___.
2. A historical reference to the Cuban Revolution will, according to the index, be found in volume ___, page ___. When you check this volume and page, you find it is contained in an article entitled______________________.
3. When you turn to the main article in Cuba, a chart with "Information Highlights" informs you that the area of Cuba is _____ sq. mi., or ____ sq. km.
4. Within the subheading "Higher Education," under the heading "Education," we find that the three official universities of Cuba are named ___________, ____________, and ___________.
5. From the map following page 296, we see that the westernmost province (state) is named ________________.
6. In a chart listing the governors and presidents of Cuba, Alfredo Zayas is noted as holding office from ______ to ______.
7. From the illustrations accompanying the article, we find that some men of import in Cuban history are ________________, _______________, and ____________.
8. How many books on Cuba are suggested for additional reading in the bibliography at the end of the article? ______
9. Under "Climate" in the section entitled "The Land and Natural Resources," we find that there are two seasons—from May to October is the ______ period, and from November to April is the _______, or winter season.

Valparaíso, Chile—1906—20,000
Chillán, Chile—1939—28,000
Pelileo, Ecuador—1949—6,000
Southern Chile—1960—5,000
Northern Peru—1970—66,794
Nicaragua—1972—5,000
Guatemala—1976—22,778
Southern Colombia—1983—250
Chile—1985—146
Mexico City—1986—4,200+
(Earthquakes)
4. Blue, white, yellow (Flags)
5. $1,950; 90; 70.4 (Population, World)
6. Cuba, 44,218 (Islands)
7. 45 (Peru)

V

Type of Reference Work: Encyclopedia in Spanish
Bibliographical Information: *Enciclopedia de México*, 10 vols. Instituto de la Enciclopedia de México, 1966.

1. En un artículo sobre la arquitectura prehispánica, se dice que el área de interés, Mesoamérica, se divide en seis regiones, que se llaman _______, _______, _______, _______, _______, y _______.
2. En el artículo sobre la ciudad de Guadalajara, hay un diagrama donde se puede ver el crecimiento de la ciudad del año ___ hasta el año ____.
3. En el artículo sobre dioses (que refiere a los de los Aztecas y los Mayas), hay nombres de los tres dioses mayores, quienes eran _____, _____, y _____.
4. Una persona que contribuyó mucho a la historia de la gente indígena durante la Conquista fue Fray Bartolomé de las Casas (quien se puede encontrar debajo del nombre Casas). De las Casas vino al Nuevo Mundo a principio del siglo ___.
5. En el artículo sobre Nicaragua, hay una fotografía de un poeta muy famoso, que se llamaba ______.

Answers:
1. Altiplano Central, el Occidente de México, la Costa del Golfo, la Región Oaxaqueña, la Zona Maya, y la Región del Norte
2. 1524, 1970
3. Huitzilopochtli, Tezcatlipoca, Quetzalcóatl
4. XVI
5. Rubén Darío

VI

Type of Reference Work: Index to General Periodicals
Bibliographical Information: *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. H. W. Wilson Co., New York.

Exercise:
1. When we look for "Latin America—Art," we are referred to _____________.
2. By checking this topic in the *Reader's Guide* covering March 1974 to February 1975, we find that there are two articles, both in the periodical_____. We are further referred to the topic _____, which notes two more articles, one in the periodical _____ and one in _____.
3. In the same volume of *Readers' Guide*, under "Mexico—Politics and Government," we note that there is an article by A. Riding entitled ________ in the periodical ________ dated _____.
4. In some preliminary information for the entire volume, we see that the periodical *Natural History* is abbreviated _____, and its address is ___________.
5. For articles on the Mexican War, 1845-1848, we are referred to the heading ________.
6. By examination, we see that in *Readers' Guide* the most current issues cover a _____ period of time, but there are various time spans of cumulations, such as _____.
7. One may look up periodical articles in *Readers' Guide* not only by subject but also by _____.

Answers:
1. Art, Latin American
2. *Américas*
Art, Pre-Columbian
Craft Horizons
Time
3. "Will Mexico Move Right," *Progressive*, December 1974.
4. Natur Hist, American Museum of Natural History in New York
5. United States—History—War with Mexico, 1845-1848
6. Two weeks, one of the following: monthly, quarterly, annually
7. Author

VII

Type of Reference Work: Index to Specific Periodical
Bibliographical Information: *National Geographic Index*, 1970-1973 Supplement. National Geographic Society, Washington

Exercise:

1. By looking up the broad term "South America" in the index, we are referred to an article about the _____ in the _____ issue. We are also referred to twelve other related subject areas, three of which are _____, _____, and _____.
2. Before we even look at this article, the index informs us that besides text, it has ________.
3. From reading the first several paragraphs of text, we discover that other names by which the river has been called are ________ and ________.
4. One interesting fact, noted several times in the article on the Amazon, is the three colors of water flowing into it: _____ (color) from the _____ (direction), _____ from the _____, and _____ from the _____.
5. By following up the lead found in #1 above to Chan Chan, we find that it is located in what is now the country of _____. To read the article, we must go to the _____ issue of *National Geographic*.
6. From a photograph concerning Chan Chan on page 320 and its caption, we find that much of the wealth of the area has been dug up by grave robbers known by the Spanish name of _____.
7. From the photographs on pages 330 and 331, we see the similarities between present-day fishing craft called _____, and those used 2000 years ago in the kingdom of _____.

Answers:

1. Amazon, October 1972, 3 of the following: Brazil, Chan Chan, Chile, Colombia, Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego, Titicaca Lake, Andean Condor, Orchids, Piranhas, Railroad Worm, Incas
2. Any of the following: photographs, illustrations, diagrams, maps
3. Marañón, O Rio Mar
4. Black from north, blue from south, brown from west
5. Peru, March 1973
6. Huaqueros
7. Caballito, Chimu

MEXICO MAP EXERCISE

María Garza-Lubeck

In Texas and numerous southwestern states, road maps of Mexico may be obtained at most service stations. Assign one class the task of obtaining a road map of Mexico (you would need only enough for a class set). The following exercise was designed to develop and reinforce map reading skills, to acquaint students with the names and locations of Mexican states and major cities, to give students experience in figuring metric distances, and to introduce students to universal road signs and symbols.

Road maps may also be obtained at your local Mexican consulate or at travel bureaus. Although Mexico is used as the example in this exercise, these questions could be adapted for use with any Latin American country.

Find the Index on the road map of Mexico. Note the letters and numbers along the top, bottom, and sides. This grid is used to find the locations listed in the Index. Use the Index and grid to answer the following questions:

1. Find Torreón—give the letter and number where this city is found on the map.________

2. Give the numbers and letters for the following cities:
San Luis Potosí_____
Colima ______
Veracruz _____
Chihuahua _____
La Paz _____

3. List all the Mexican states and their capitals.

4. Describe the symbol used to show a divided highway.

5. What highway would you take to go from Monterrey to Ciudad Victoria? _____

6. Name 5 cities that have a population of 25,000 or more. ________, ________, ________, ________, and ________.

7. What two major highways intersect Durango? ________

8. All of Latin America (Mexico included) is under the

metric system of measurement. Road distances are measured by *kilometers*, which are 5/8 of a mile. For a quick rough conversion to miles, multiply the kilometer by 6 and then drop the last number. Example: 40 km x 6 = 240 (about 24 miles)
Find the approximate mileage for the following: 20 km, 55 km, 170 km, 37 km, 89 km.

9. On the road map is a chart showing the approximate mileage to various major cities. Give the approximate mileage between the cities of Aguascalientes and Acapulco, Guadalajara and León, Nogales and Querétaro, Veracruz and Mazatlán, México, D. F., and Saltillo.

10. Look at the inset of México, D.F. Is Tlalnepantla north, south, east, or west of Mexico City? _____.

11. Name the American equivalent to México, D.F. ________.

12. List all the bodies of water that surround Mexico.

13. What country is north of Mexico? _____ What country is south of Mexico? _____

14. On the city map of Mexico City find the number and letter for the location of the following: Chapultepec Castle, Guadalupe Shrine, University City, Xochimilco, and Desert of the Lions (National Park).

15. Mexican road signs are also included on your highway map. Why do you think this is important?
Draw the road signs for the following: Stop, Speed Limit, Do Not Enter, No Parking, Slide Area, Dip, Railroad Crossing, Keep Right, Hospital, and Inspection.

HOW THE U.S. MEDIA VIEW EVENTS IN LATIN AMERICA

Linda D. Klinger

James Reston once said, "Americans will do anything for Latin America but read about it." Latin America has been long forgotten—or at best hidden—in the U.S. media. Many of the mistaken attitudes and value judgments formulated by U.S. citizens about Latin Americans are based on the nature of events most frequently reported in the media, i.e., earthquakes, terrorist attacks, military coups. An examination by high school students of the U.S. media coverage given to Latin America can be a valuable tool in illustrating how stereotypes develop. Students can then discuss how accurately they think Latin America is portrayed in the U.S. media as the first step in overcoming the stereotyped image that many students have of Latin America.

Objectives

1. To encourage use of both familiar library periodicals (*Time*, *Newsweek*, daily newspapers) as well as Latin American publications.
2. To evaluate treatment of situations and events in Lain America by the North American media.

Materials

U.S. News and World Report
Time
Newsweek
Business Week
Christian Science Monitor
Atlas World Press Review (translations of foreign press reporting of world situations)
Latin American Digest
The Times of the Americas
Latin America (journal from London)
Wall Street Journal
Miami Herald (published in English and Spanish)

Procedure

1. CHOICE OF TOPICS
    A. U.S. Media
        If topic is current, assign TV and radio stations to be listened to and watched for maximum coverage. If topic is not current, use available back copies of major publications listed in

Materials section.

The teacher may choose to select one particular topic and find articles relating to it.

B. Latin American Media

Reading about situations and events from the Latin American viewpoint can aid in the evaluation of U.S. media attitude and/or bias.

2. INITIAL QUESTIONS FOR CLASS

A. Do students have any initial impressions of the media's treatment of Latin America?

B. What stories have they read or heard about Latin America lately?

C. Can any generalization be made about bias or lack of bias in these presentations of the news (the presentations referred to in 2.B)?

3. INVESTIGATION OF THE MEDIA

A. Newspaper

1. Where is the story located in the paper? Which section and page?

2. On the page itself, is the story about Latin America a lead report, with bold headlines, or is it a minor entry? Is the story at the top or bottom of the page?

3. Is the story in the world news section, or is it by itself somewhere else in the paper?

4. What topic does the story deal with? Is it a positive or negative view of the situation?

5. If the story is a follow-up, is there enough information given for background and understanding?

6. Are there any editorials concerning Latin America?

7. Are there pictures with any stories about Latin America?

B. Current Radio, TV

1. Is the story first mentioned at the beginning, middle, or end of the broadcast?

2. Is the story mentioned daily, in follow-up reports?

3. Is there film coverage of the topic (TV) or on-the-scene coverage (radio)?

C. Periodicals

1. Is the report a lead story in the issue or simply a part of the world news section?

2. Is there pictorial coverage of the topic?

3. Is the article favorable or unfavorable?

4. Is there an editorial on Latin America?

4. ANALYSIS

A. What topics concerning Latin America are reported in the greatest depth by the U.S. media?

B. Can there be a judgment made as to the favorable or unfavorable attitude of the U.S. media toward Latin America?

C. PROJECT: Have teams or individuals within the classroom write two (a U.S. and a Latin American) views of a particular situation in Latin America. Students should make decisions regarding the amount of pictorial coverage, as well as the importance of the story to an overall newscast and/or publication.

COUNTRY AND FACT GRID

María Garza-Lubeck

Brief Description

A class or individual activity to be carried on throughout a unit on a particular country.

Grade Level

Adaptable to any grade level

Objectives

To develop a student's ability to find specific information about a country.

Materials and Preparation

1. One grid for each student
2. Prepare the grid for the particular country. Make sure the information will be available for the categories you have chosen. See the example for possible categories.

Instructions for Use

At the beginning of a study of unit on any particular Latin American country, develop a grid as shown on the next page. Throughout the unit the students are to be filling in as many items as possible. The first letter of the item entered under a particular category must correspond to the letter of the country in that row.

You may wish to assign this as a culminating review activity. When it is completed, you may choose a student or have a volunteer introduce a category that he or she has recorded on the grid. Initiate a class discussion. This activity may also be used as a final test.

COUNTRY AND FACT GRID

	CITY	STATE	FAMOUS PERSON	PRODUCT	PLACE or EVENT	YOUR CHOICE
M	Monterrey		Morelos			Mariachis
E						
X	Xochitepec				Xochimilco	
I			Iturbide			
C		Colima			Cinco de mayo	Charros
O				Oil		

E						
L						
P						
E						
R						
U						

sample grid

C					
H					
I					
L					
E					

4.

MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES

DID YOU KNOW THESE THINGS ABOUT OUR SPANISH HERITAGE?

Monte Adkison
María Garza-Lubeck

The first breeds of cattle, sheep, hogs, and horses were brought to this country by Spaniards.

Figs, citrus fruits, and grape arbors were introduced into the U.S. by Spaniards.

Old routes that made up the Camino Real are still in use in California.

The word *dollar* and the dollar sign came to us from Spain.

The first white man born in the North American hemisphere was of pure Spanish descent.

The oldest non-Indian name on record in the U.S. is Solana.

The Jesuit priest Baez published the first book in this country in Georgia in 1569.

The first theatrical production in this country was given in El Paso in 1598 by the troops of Juan de Oñate.

The first instance of community planning in this country was in St. Augustine, Florida, where a royal *cédula* laid out the location of streets, cathedrals, forts, and other major buildings.

Laws based on the Siete Partidas of Alfonso X, Laws of the Indies, are still of fundamental importance in the legal system in parts of the United States.

Spain aided the American revolutionists by sending troops.

The first attempt to establish a permanent Spanish colony in this country was in 1526 in the Carolinas by Lucas Vásquez de Ayallón.

The Spanish contributed the overhanging balcony and the patio to our architecture.

Alvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca, after being shipwrecked, was forced to explore the Southwest for seven years. In 1536 he published an account of his experiences in the book *Shipwrecked*.

The first black man in this country was Esteban, who was shipwrecked with Cabeza de Vaca. The Indians considered him to be a medicine man.

Many, if not most, of our ranching terms and equipment are derived from the Spanish

lasso rodeo
lariat bronco
chaparral

Santa Fe, New Mexico, has the oldest surviving public building in the United States.

The mission of Friar Ruiz in Puaray Pueblo, New Mexico, was the first church in this country. It was built in 1581.

The Spaniards introduced the practice of branding in the New World.

Suggestions for Use

Have the students research and obtain more information on the Spanish impact in the New World for a class report.

Have the students construct a bulletin board or library display.

Organize an assembly on "Our Spanish Heritage."

Make a mural depicting Spanish contributions in America.

Make a three-dimensional map and label the major geographic features and states that have Spanish names (Sierra Madre, Rio Grande, Florida, etc.).

Using clay, cardboard, popsicle sticks, etc., make a scale model of a mission—label the rooms and explain their function.

ACROSTIC POEMS

Donald Cellini

This is a simple technique that can be used to help students express ideas on a variety of cultural topics. The samples that follow were written by secondary students who were studying Spanish as a second language but, because of the simplicity of the form, they could be adapted to either English or Spanish and used on almost any grade level.

The steps are easy. The student writes the topic of his or her poem in a column and uses the initials to form an outline. Then he or she develops the idea by filling in the lines.

The examples here show three possible uses of the poems.

1. To provide biographical information on historical figures—José Martí, Hernán Cortés, Bartolomé de las Casas, Simón Bolívar, etc.

José Julián Martí Pérez
Originando de la isla de Cuba,
Se distinguió en literatura como
Ensayista magnífico.

Muriendo por su
Adorable isla, se
Recuerda por
Todas sus obras literarias,
Ideales en su forma.

Le llamaban "el defensor de los indios
Americanos." Dio sus tierras a los indios y
Se dedicó a defenderlos.

Como escritor religioso, luchó contra los
Abusos de los conquistadores.
Sin embargo, en las
Américas, hay pocos monumentos, y pocos
Saben de su dedicación a la humanidad.

2. To imitate poets and poetic styles—Nicolás Guillén, Rubén Darío, Octavio Paz, Pablo Neruda.

Nombasa-Lomba-Nombasá
Inventor de poesía afrocubana
Como Nombasa-Lomba-Nombasá.
O era un hombre quien
Levantaba las esperanzas de los
Afrocubanos
Sin una

Galera por su trabajo. El
Unió las personas de Africa
Igual que Walt Whitman.
Lomba-Nombasa-Lombá.
Lomba-Nombasa-Lombá.
Escribió por
Ninguna razón, sino por ritmo.
(In imitation of Guillén's "Sensemayá.")

Rítmico y soñoliento, le voy a contar,
Usted es una parte de la tierra y la luna,
Buenas personas, todas en una.
Elefantes marchan a la orilla de la mar.
Nuevas personas además estar.

Divino tesoro
A la vida de todo
Repita la niña.
Independencia—un nuevo modo
Otros a mí; otros a enseñar.
(In imitation of Darío's "A Margarita Debayle.")

3. To describe other cultural topics—titles of books, countries, sports, foods, etc.

Se juega con los pies, cabeza y también con los
Ojos porque tiene que ver quien se va a
Cubrir cuando se juega. En
Colombia y otras partes de Latino América
El soccer es el deporte más famoso.
Rubén Amor y Pelé son dos de los mejores en
este deporte.

PERSONAL ENCOUNTERS

Julia K. Mellenbruch

1. STANDARD FORMAT

Second-Class Bus

Bill has been saving his money to travel to Yucatán, Mexico. He has a burning desire to see some of the Mayan ruins. As he arrives at the airport in Mérida, he sees pictures of the most famous excavations and the taxi driver talks enthusiastically about Chichén Itzá en route to the hotel.

Upon inquiring at the hotel, he finds that he can make his own arrangements to take the bus to Chichén Itzá. At the bus station he is informed that a second-class bus leaves at 7:00 A.M. He is delighted and purchases a ticket.

En route to his destination, Bill becomes very frustrated. The bus is not air conditioned and it is very hot and humid. The driver stops often to pick up passengers with chickens, goats, and other animals. The seats are all occupied and some passengers are standing in the aisles hovering over the seated passengers.

Bill arrives at Chichén Itzá hot and disgruntled. His enthusiasm for seeing the ruins has waned because of the discomfort he has experienced. He is surprised to see the happy expressions of Mexicans who boarded the bus with him in Mérida, as they are eagerly looking forward to a delightful outing.

Discussion Starters:
1. In what country does this event take place?
2. What is Bill's principal objective in coming here?
3. How does he make arrangements to carry out his objective?
4. What situation has dampened his enthusiasm?
5. Why do you think Americans should be prepared for a ride on a second-class bus?
6. How do people in the U.S. sometimes show displeasure when travel accommodations are not as comfortable as they like?
7. Why are the Mexicans probably not upset by this situation?
8. When you read this selection, do you empathize with Bill or with the Mexicans?
9. If you were one of the Mexicans, how would you feel when Bill appeared disgruntled on arriving at the breathtaking sight of the ruins of Chichén Itzá?

2. FORCED-CHOICE FORMAT

Greetings, Latin American-Style

Suzie is an American student in a summer program in Guatemala City. When she meets her Guatemalan girlfriends, they greet her with an embrace and a slight kiss on the cheek. She observes that this is the customary manner of greeting among Guatemalan girls. It seems strange to her and she does not know how to respond comfortably. Of the 5 choices listed, select the one you think would be best:

___ 1. Ignore the gesture completely.

___ 2. Frankly admit to the Guatemalan girls that this is not done among your friends in the United States.

___ 3. Avoid the girls by looking in the opposite direction.

___ 4. Keep your distance and greet them in the way you do your friends at home.

___ 5. Try to imitate their gesture as naturally as possible.

Greetings, Latin American-Style (Alternate)

Jim is an American student in a summer program in Guatemala City. When he meets his Guatemalan male friends, they greet him with an *abrazo*. He observes that this is the customary manner of greeting among Guatemalan males. It seems strange to him and he does not know how to respond comfortably. Of the 5 choices listed, select the one you think would be best:

___ 1. Ignore the gesture completely.

___ 2. Frankly admit to your Guatemalan friends that this is not the custom in the U.S. and it makes you feel uncomfortable.

___ 3. Avoid meeting your friends at social functions by looking away from them.

___ 4. Keep your distance and greet them in the way you do your friends at home.

___ 5. Try to imitate the gesture as naturally as possible.

Suppose you are asked by a Guatemalan to justify your choice. How would you explain it?

Discussion Starters:

1. Where are the two American students?
2. What customs have they encountered that seem strange to them?
3. Are there customs in the U.S. with which Guatemalans might feel uncomfortable?
4. Is it important to observe the customs of a country in which you are living?
5. How do you feel when someone fails to respond to your gestures of friendship?
6. What would you value most highly: keeping your own customs or accepting those of another culture to make the other person feel comfortable although you might not be?

3. RANK ORDER FORMAT

Venezuelan Contact

You are going to Venezuela to work for an American firm. You want to establish good relations with your prospective Venezuelan clients. You have made a list of five objectives that you would like to accomplish before leaving the U.S. Rank them in the order of importance: 1 = highest.

___a. Lean to speak Spanish fluently, including Venezuelan dialect.

___ b. Get suggestions from members of firms who have had experience in Venezuela.

___ c. Familiarize yourself with Venezuelan social customs.

___d. Purchase appropriate apparel from a reliable clothing store.

___e. Read books on contemporary politics, history, and geography of Venezuela.

I chose ___ as the most important because ____.

I chose ___ as the least important because _____.

Discussion Starters:

1. To which country are you going?
2. Why are you going there?
3. How do you begin making preparations for leaving?
4. Which item do you think would impress a Venezuelan businessman most?
5. Would this be the same for a U.S. businessman?
6. Is your primary objective (a) to sell your project, (b) to maintain the confidence of the Venezuelans?
7. How do you feel about this new adventure?
8. Do you like to try new foods?
9. Do you cultivate friends who have a different life-style from your own?
10. What long-lasting benefits can you expect to derive from this experience?

4. AFFIRMATIVE FORMAT

Boiled Water

Tim, a member of an American research team in La Paz, and his wife, Sarah, have met Graciela, a young Bolivian girl, who is studying English at the binational center where Sarah is teaching. Thy have frequently invited Graciela to their apartment to eat hamburgers, apple pie, and other typical U.S. foods.

Although Graciela lives in a poorer section of the city, she is eager to reciprocate and has invited Tim and Sarah to have Sunday lunch at the modest home of her parents. Tim and Sarah have accepted the invitation.

As they approach the house, they realize it is more primitive than they had expected The kitchen section has an earthen floor and Graciela's mother is cooking the meat over charcoal. The steaming hot spaghetti with an unfamiliar aroma of goat cheese topping is on the table. Graciela shows them a tropical fruit and describes the process for making the punch that they will have for their lunch. The guests look at each other. Nothing has been said about whether or not the water for making the punch had been boiled. The aroma of the goat cheese is more and more penetrating.

It would be an insult not to eat the spaghetti and drink the punch. While realizing the danger of drinking unboiled water, they decide to . . .

Discussion Starters:

1. In what country does this situation take place?
2. What circumstances have brought about the culture conflict that Tim and Sarah are experiencing?
3. What are the elements in the conflict?
4. Why is unboiled water a problem? Do you boil water before drinking it?
5. Have you ever visited a friend's home in which a food you do not like was served? How did you handle this situation?
6. Have you ever prepared food for someone who refused to eat it?
7. How might Tim and Sarah have been better prepared for this visit?
8. Why is the emphasis that a U.S. citizen places on boiled water justifiable in a situation like this?
9. What favorable/unfavorable consequences might result from this experience?

5. CLASSIFICATION FORMAT

Recife-bound

Mary has just received a letter from her husband, Jim, who is in Washington. They had been scheduled to go to a nearby Spanish-speaking country in the tropics on a special U.S. State Department mission. A U. S. diplomat to this country has been kidnapped and their assignment has been changed to Brazil.

Jim, Mary, and their two teen-age children have been studying Spanish intensively for six months and they have been reading extensively on the country to which they were destined. Now they will have to leave for Recife, Brazil, in three weeks on a two-year assignment.

They need to consult their list of concerns and make changes accordingly.

If you were they, how would you rate them? Mark **I** for immediate attention, **L** for later on arrival in Recife, and **U** for unchanged:

___ 1. Appropriate clothing for a tropical climate

___2. Oral communication in Portuguese

___ 3. Education institutions for high school students

___ 4. Electrical current, frequency, and voltage

___ 5. Brazilian customs related to food marketing, preparation, and serving

___ 6. Public transportation facilities

___ 7. Social customs in daily life activities

___ 8. Availability of English-language library materials.

___ 9. Religious life activities in Recife

___ 10. Recreational facilities

___ 11. Housing accommodations

___ 12. Household help

The three most important items for immediate attention are
1.
2.
3.

The reasons for choosing these are

______________________________.

The three least important items for immediate attention are
1.
2.
3.

The reasons for choosing these are

______________________________.

Discussion Starters:

1. To which country were Jim and Mary scheduled to go?
2. Where are they going now?
3. How soon will they be leaving?
4. What difference will this make in their plans?
5. Where will they be able to get up-to-date information on Brazil within the time limit?
6. Why is it important that the families of U.S. diplomats be informed about the countries in which they will be living?
7. If you were one of the children in the family, what would be your main concern?
8. What would you want to take from your culture to share with your Brazilian friends?
9. What plans would you want to make at home for a two-year absence?
10. How would you feel if you were about to have this experience?

(Adapted from *Cross-Cultural Inquiry: Value Clarification Exercises*, by J. Doyle Casteel and Clemens Hallman.)

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CONTEMPORARY CULTURE: THE HIDDEN SIDE OF LATIN AMERICA

Cecelia K. Buckley

Because in many instances we are primarily concerned with history, politics, and economics in area studies, we unfortunately tend to ignore a very beautiful and meaningful element—the arts.

Latin America has a rich tradition of prose and poetry, much of which has been translated into English. Therefore, accessibility is not a problem. "Contemporary Culture: The Hidden Side of Latin America" is a lovely introduction to Latin American music, art, architecture, and poetry. May it be the origin of continued appreciation of our South American neighbors' individuality, expression, and talent.

Level: **Secondary**

Art, architecture, and poetry are presented on slides accompanied by a taped commentary with musical background. It is to be used as an introduction to contemporary culture or as a single-period "look" at culture in Latin America. A student worksheet including discussion questions, biographical information, a list of slides, and a note on music should be given to each class member.

The project is an attempt to introduce students on the senior high level to contemporary culture in Latin America. It is not meant to be comprehensive. The examples were chosen to capture student interest and imagination. It is hoped that a respect can be engendered for a culture usually slighted in the study of world history.

SCRIPT
CONTEMPORARY CULTURE: THE HIDDEN SIDE OF LATIN AMERICA

Slide 1 All too often this is what you see of Latin America in our press. Here government buildings are being bombed during the overthrow of the Allende government in Chile.

2 The face of a dedicated educator and talented poet like Gabriela Mistral, shown here, does not make headlines.

3 For the next few minutes, let's forget coups d'état and earthquakes and explore the hidden side of Latin America. You will meet some of the men and women who create lasting memorials to the values, goals, and ideals of their countrymen.

4 Some names will be familiar, some will not—but be assured that you are meeting a very few of the very best.

5 (Music) This is the music of Brazilian composer Heitor Villa-Lobos. His music shows many influences—European, Portuguese, African, Spanish, and Indian

6 As a young man, Villa-Lobos explored the Amazon with a scientific expedition. He wished to absorb the sights and rhythms of his country. He wanted to express musically the essence of his homeland.

7 Villa-Lobos produced hundreds of compositions. The one you hear now uses many instruments—flutes, drums, clarinets, and even a metal tube filled with gravel.

8 Music

9 Music

10 There are other ways of exposing a country's essence to others. It is easier to see the struggle and the brilliance of Mexico in the art of José Clemente Orozco. He is famous for his murals, or wall paintings. They are similar to the fresco art of Europe but they also owe much to the wall art of the Mayas and the Aztecs.

11 Orozco lived during a period of civil strife in Mexico. The people were rebelling against the thirty-year rule of Porfirio Díaz. A leader of the opposition was Emiliano Zapata, whose story has been told with varying degrees of ac-

curacy in many American movies.

12 In this colorful mural, Orozco shows the Mexican people turning against their oppressors. Fire, a purifying element, is portrayed in much of his work, as are upraised or outstretched hands and arms.

13 Here again are hands and arms in a detail from another mural, but the attitude is supplication or resignation, rather than anger. Perhaps we should note that Orozco lost his left hand in a chemical explosion in his youth. Artists' themes can be both personal and national.

14 This is a self-portrait of Oswaldo Guayasamín, an admirer of José Clemente Orozco. Guayasamín, an Ecuadorian, works in several media. The next few slides show part of a series of social protest oil paintings on canvas. The series is called "The Time of Wrath."

15 The next two slides come from "The Time of Wrath." Their subtitle is "Los Culpables," the guilty ones. This gentleman is called the dictator.

16 Let me introduce you to "El Presidente."

17 Remember Orozco's dramatic use of hands? Guayasamín titled this picture "The Hands of Tears." It also comes from the "Wrath" series, as does the next slide.

18 Guayasamín painted these pictures after a visit to pre-Castro Cuba. The directors of the Museum of Modern Art in Paris exhibited the entire series. Very seldom is a living artist shown in this museum.

19 An artist is the product of his environment. He sees, feels, and expresses all the emotions, not just anger, sadness, or fear. This is a valley typical of the area where Guayasamín lives, high in the Andes in Quito.

20 Here Guayasamín shows us "Quito Verde." Quito is vibrant with life, but also quiet and serene. The Andes loom above it, the air moves almost violently, but Quito seems comfortable nestled at their feet. What emotions is the artist expressing in this landscape?

21 It is more difficult to decipher the intent of those who write in a language other than our own. However, Jorge Luis Borges, the internationally acclaimed Argentine poet, in his way is just as universal as the more visual artists. In the poem "Allusion to the Death of Colonel Francisco Borges" (1833-1874), the author narrates the last moments of a military ancestor riding majestically to meet his death by ambush.

22 I leave him on his horse on that evening
In which he rode across the plain to meet
His death, and of all the hours of his fate
May this one, though bitter, go on living.
White horse, white poncho pick a studied way
Over the flat terrain. Ahead, death lurks
Patiently in the barrels of the guns.
Colonel Borges sadly crosses the plain.

23 What closed on him, the Remingtons' crackle,
What his eye took in, endless grazing land,
Are what he saw and heard his whole life long
Here was his home—in the thick of battle

24 In his epic world, riding on his horse,
I leave him almost untouched by my verse.
(Borges, p. 135)

Borges has attempted to capture the colonel in his last heroic moment, but the poet implies that not even the sensitivity of his verse is equal to the task.

25 Let us return to another of the visual arts—architecture. Ever since people on all continents removed themselves from caves, they have attempted to improve on the nature of their shelters and cities. But there have been few adventures as architecturally exciting as Brasília. It grew in untouched territory where no city had been before under the direction of the Brazilian architect Oscar Niemeyer.

26 Niemeyer designed all the government buildings and had final say on all other construction. Those who believe that an urban center should grow "naturally" out of historical or geographic needs have found much to criticize, including its immense cost. Its bright, sparkling newness is certainly a startling contrast to the cities that "just happened" and that most

people live in.

27 But Niemeyer's brilliance and audacity, the stark beauty of his designs, are difficult to fault. There are echoes of this audacity and willingness to experiment with new structures and building materials all over Latin America.

28 Not all Latin Americans live surrounded by audacious or monumental structures. Here is a relatively simple private home in Buenos Aires.

29 However, we are concerned with Latin American architectural innovation. The designer of this structure wished to use the old art of bricklaying in an unusual way. This is part of a church in Uruguay.

30 For our last example of the hidden side of Latin America, we will turn to a lady who tried to hide herself. She did not succeed very well, for she won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1945 for poems very much like this one, called "Cradle Song."

31 The sea cradles
its millions of stars divine.
Listening to the seas in love,
I cradle the one who is mine.

The errant wind in the night
cradles the wheat.
Listening to the winds in love,
I cradle my sweet.

32 God Our Father cradles
His thousands of worlds without sound.
Feeling His hand in the darkness,
I cradle the babe I have found.
(*Selected Poems*, p. 21)

33 Gabriela Mistral never had any children. The love she would have given to them she gave to her students. She was honored by many for her exceptional teaching ability. She was also acclaimed because of her talent for expressing ideas about honor and goodness and the love of children that not everyone can put into words.

34 I Am Not Lonely

The night is left lonely
from the hills to the sea.
But I, who cradle you,
I am not lonely!

The sky is left lonely
should the moon fall in the sea.
But I, who cling to you,
I am not lonely!

The world is left lonely
and all know misery.
But I, who hug you close,
I am not lonely!
(*Selected Poems*, p. 20)

SUGGESTED DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR USE WITH "CONTEMPORARY CULTURE: THE HIDDEN SIDE OF LATIN AMERICA"

1. How can a musician tell you about his or her country? If you wanted to create a musical picture of the United States, what sounds would you use?

2. Name an American musician. What does he or she say to you about the United States? How does he or she do it?

3. Why is mural art important in Latin America? What do murals and cartoons have in common?

4. What emotions are Orozco and Guayasamín making you see? How do these artists lead you to feel certain emotions?

5. Think of any artist whose works you have already studied. What do you remember about the work? Analyze your response. *Why* do you remember this artist and his or her work?

6. What is the difference between a portrait and a caricature?

7. Borges tells the story of the Colonel's last day. What details does he use? What does he leave out? Can you imagine a few?

8. Guess what the poet Borges cares about or admires from reading his poem.

9. What do you already know about the city of Brasília? (See suggested written activities.)

10. Think of some interesting buildings in your city.

Are they new or old? What are they used for?

11. What style home do you live in? What does your choice of housing say about you and your family?

12. Guess what Gabriela Mistral values from listening to her poems.

13. Must a poet experience everything to write?

14. Can you name an American poet? Give an example of his or her subject matter.

A SUGGESTED WRITTEN ACTIVITY

Do some research to find out more about these artists and their homelands:

Heitor Villa-Lobos—Brazil
José Clemente Orozco—Mexico
Oswaldo Guayasamín—Ecuador
Jorge Luis Borges—Argentina
Oscar Niemeyer—Brazil and Brasília
Gabriela Mistral—Chile
Gabriel García Márquez—Colombia

How do they fit into the culture of Latin America?

What is the status of an artist in Latin America?

What kinds of art are most valued in the United States?

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Twenty Centuries of Mexican Art. Mexico City: Museum of Modern Art and Instituto de Antropología e Historia de México, 1940. (slide 11)

World Wide Photos. Santiago, Chile. September 12, 1973. (slide 1)

RECORDING

Villa-Lobos, Heitor. "The Little Train of the Caipira." Sir Eugene Goorens conducting the London Symphony Orchestra. Los Angeles: Everest Records.

THE PLEASURES AND PROBLEMS OF TEACHER-PRODUCED SLIDE PRESENTATIONS

Materials Needed

1. A camera that does a great deal of the thinking for you, i.e., automatic light meter
2. Copystand to provide stability and light for reproducing pictures from magazines and books.
3. Film appropriate for camera type and light source. The suffix "krome" signifies slide film.

Teacher-produced slide presentations can fill the gaps in the panorama of commercially produced filmstrips, slides, and moves. Your own slides can be custom-fitted to fill the specific needs of any class in any discipline.

"Contemporary Culture: The Hidden Side of Latin America" was created to show students an aspect of this part of the world usually neglected in commercial audiovisuals. Given appropriate picture sources, the same can be done for other neglected social studies, language, or science areas.

However, teacher-produced slide shows take time to create. Visual sources must be located, research must be done, and the film must be developed.

Make careful and permanent notes of all sources using some bibliographic form. This will save time if part of your production gets lost. Also, it is less troublesome to take two pictures of the same visual than to have slides copied later. The slide is your negative and if it is lost, then you must start all over again.

A unifying theme for your production is essential for several reasons. A good idea becomes a great one when you think it out and write it out in script form. If you can bear to read your own "brainstorm" aloud to yourself, then your students will probably enjoy learning about it. A picture may be worth ten thousand words, but if you do not know specifically what you want to do with it, it remains only a vague image on your classroom wall.

It is not absolutely essential to tape your commentary but a tape does tend to curb teacher verbosity. The machine can be switched off if a student wants to comment. If your taped voice offends you, use a friend's. Finally, a musical background sounds more finished and, of course, music can tell part of your story.

CHAPTER 5. ARTS AND CRAFTS

Compiled by María Garza-Lubeck

The arts and crafts in this chapter, drawn from several Latin American nations, represent only a small sample of the rich and varied artistic milieu of Latin America. Arts and crafts can serve as a focus or supplement for any unit of study on Latin America. Whether introduced alone or in conjunction with another unit, arts and crafts can help to deepen student understanding and appreciation of Latin America through the affective as well as the intellectual modes of learning. In addition, they serve to heighten student interest in studying about Latin American through "fun" activities.

Most of the lessons in this chapter are adaptable to any grade level.

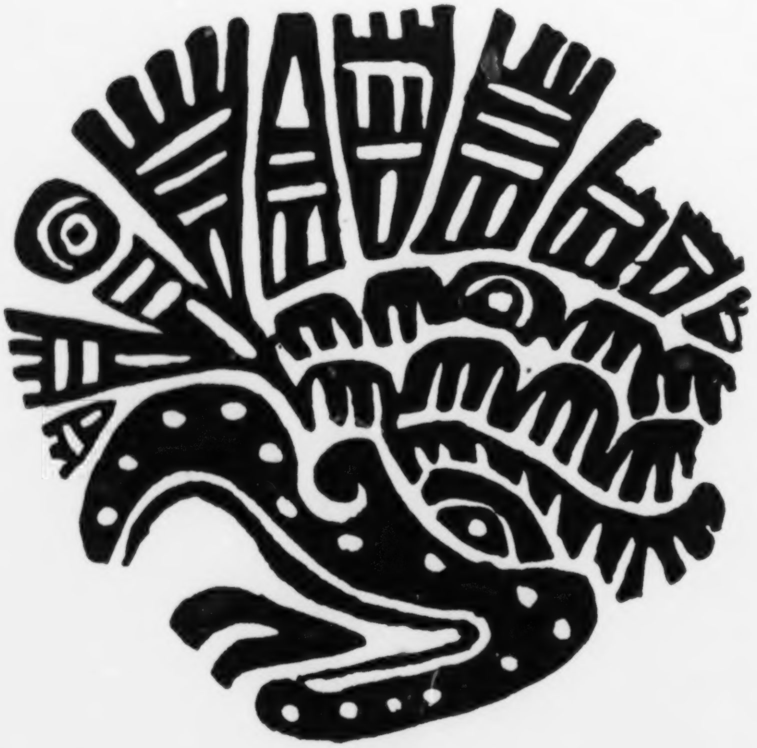


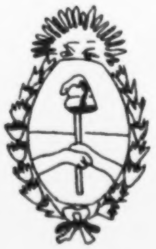
ILLUSTRATION: Flat stamp representing an eagle, from *Pre-Hispanic Mexican Stamp Designs*, Dover Publications, Inc.

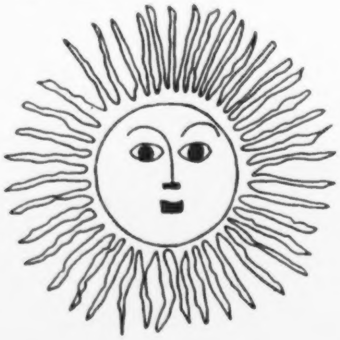
ARGENTINE LEATHERWORK

Because of the abundance of fine grazing land, known as the Pampa, the cattle industry is the foundation of the Argentine economy. The high-quality beef has made Argentina the greatest exporter of meat in the world.

A natural by-product of the beef industry is the leather industry. During or after a classroom study on Argentina, your students might enjoy making these simple and inexpensive leather craft items.

The two motifs shown here are the Argentine coat of arms and a stylized Argentine sun. If desired, they may be embossed on the leather.



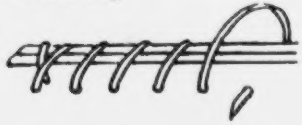


Different Ways of Thonging

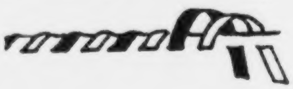
1. Figure 1 shows how variations can be introduced to make thonging not only a useful technique for joining two pieces of leather, but also a decorative effect. The most widely used method is the simple overcasting method. However, as you gain experience and master early problems, you will want to be more adventurous.

Figure 1—Thonging Techniques for Joining and Decoration

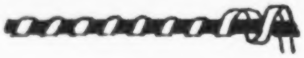
a) Overcasting



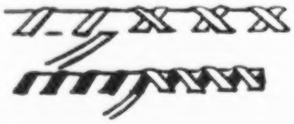
b) Overcasting with two colors



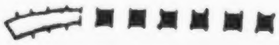
c) Couching



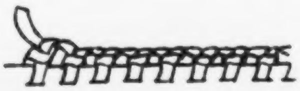
d) Two ways of doing criss-cross thonging



e) Running stitch



f) Blanket stitch



g) Lacing two pieces of leather together

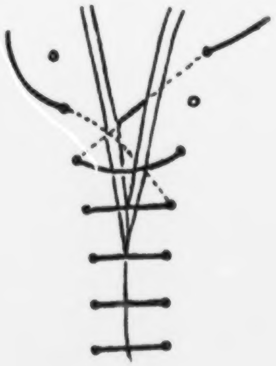


Figure 2— Child's Comb Case

Cut two pieces, each 5" by 1 1/2" and shape top and end as shown. Stitch or thong both together. Thong or stitch round curved edge at top, to give neat appearance.

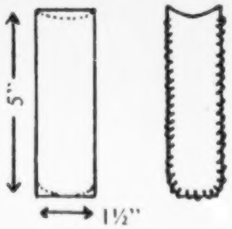


Figure 3—Key Case

Cut two pieces of leather, each 6" by 3" (one to be used as back and one as lining of case). Fit lower part of press-stud to front of case, as shown in diagram. Use rivets to attach key-ring fitting to center area of lining. Thong round edges and fit upper part of press stud to flap.

It is a good idea never to discard leather scraps. Even the smallest ones may be useful for stick-on or sew-on appliqué, when you are making a toy animal or some article in scrap work. And it is worth knowing that you can often buy a bundle of larger scraps from a leather merchant. These are sold by weight and priced according to quality.

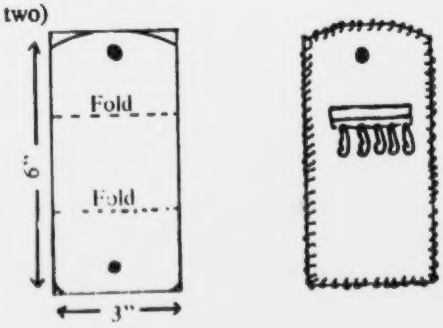
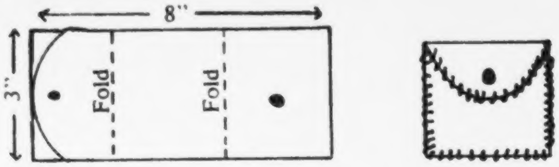


Figure 4—Child's Purse (unlined)

Cut one piece, 8" by 3". Trim one end to form flap and fold piece, as shown in diagram. Fit press stud as indicated, thong sides together and thong flap to complete.



Embossing

The simplest procedure for embossing leather items would be to obtain a beginner's leather craft kit, which is available at most craft stores. The kit contains simple, easy-to-follow instructions and the most basic tools needed for embossing.

(Diagrams for the child's purse, child's comb case, key case, and thonging techniques for joining and decoration were reprinted with permission from *Leatherwork: A Step by Step Guide*, by Mary Manning and E. A. Manning [Feltham, Middlesex, England: Hamlin Group, Astronaut House, Hounslow Road TW1134AZ].)

BEAN AND SEED MOSAIC AND YARN COLLAGE

These two craft suggestions may easily be incorporated into your Latin American studies program. Flowers, animals, motifs, countries, flags, etc., may be illustrated and displayed.

Bean and Seed Mosaic

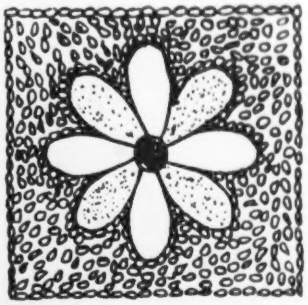
Materials:

Heavy cardboard for mount

Dried beans, peas, corn, rice, sand, crushed eggshells, coffee grounds, etc.

Directions:

Draw picture or design on heavy cardboard. It could be an Aztec design, the Mexican flag, etc. Glue beans and seeds around and within outlines, arranging to form designs over the entire surface of cardboard.



Yarn Collage

Materials:

Construction paper or manila tag paper

Variety of colored yarn

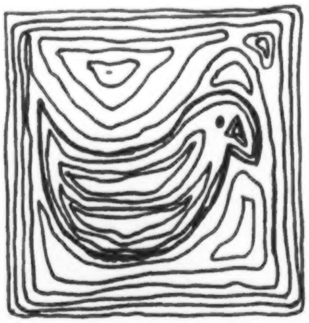
White liquid glue

Directions:

Spread a handful of yarn pieces on table and let shapes and colors suggest design arrangement for collage. Experiment by placing designs on construction paper, arranging light pastel designs on dark paper, darker designs on light paper. Glue completed design in place and embellish with fluffed-up bits of yarn.

Use simple geometric designs with younger pupils.

If yarn is not available, children may draw colored lines within the outline of an object to give the effect of yarn.



(From the "Arts and Crafts" section of *Information and Materials to Teach the Cultural Heritage of the Mexican American Child* [Austin, TX: Region XIII Education Service Center, Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1976].)

BICULTURAL CHRISTMAS TREE ORNAMENTS

Mark Seng

Visit Mexico City at Christmas and you will find a city of fireworks, smiling and happy faces, Christmas scenes sculpted of light, and Christmas trees everywhere with brightly shining tin ornaments, distinctly Mexican. Children from six to sixty will have a fine time making these great decorations from materials available free throughout the world. The secret to the simple and low-cost construction stems from a material used by printers for offset printing. Printers use a large sheet of aluminum each time they print a page. The printer photographically engraves the image to be printed on the aluminum sheets, which are coated with a photographic emulsion. Most of this emulsion is cleaned off, leaving a sheet of aluminum with lines of printing that he or she uses to make hundreds of copies. After printing, this plate is usually discarded. Printers are usually happy to give a stack of used plates to whoever asks. The thickness of the sheets increases slightly with the overall size, so if you want somewhat easier materials for first-grade children to work with, ask for smaller sheets; if you prefer the heavier weight, ask for larger sheets. However, all sheets can be cut easily and safely with an ordinary pair of sharp scissors. 3M Company manufactures a litho plate that is especially shiny, making that material perfect for these ornaments. Once the outlines have been cut by the children, the teacher, or parents, designs may be embossed by the children in limitless ways using available tools.

Because aluminum is quite soft, steel objects will readily emboss it. A small screwdriver proved ideal for marking the eyes of the figure of a small girl. An empty ballpoint pen with a fine tip has proved the most useful all-purpose tool. Indeed, one can make ornaments using only this one readily available tool. An empty pen does not leave a residue that would interfere with the subsequent painting. Small scissors, especially cuticle scissors, facilitate cutting more intricate patterns. One can even ask nurses or doctors for discarded surgical scissors, which are periodically replaced. These tiny scissors prove very effective, yet safe for young children. A saber saw blade placed lengthwise on the aluminum will yield an interesting series of perfectly spaced indentations when tapped with a small hammer. For many tools like the screwdriver, the palm of the hand exerts adequate force to emboss aluminum. Inexpensive children's hammers can be used when more pressure is needed.

A large magazine makes a good work surface and provides the slight cushion needed. Bits of tubing can make circular patterns. Or form a tool for cutting out leaf-shaped patterns by crushing the end of a bit of tubing. Old files have most interesting patterns. The tough steel will prove ideal for cutting out leaf patterns as well. Anyone working with metals (like a machinist or plumber) can supply interesting bits of "tool" steel already shaped to cut patterns. For example, small dies used to cut threads on water pipe wear out periodically and are discarded and replaced. These small dies will emboss a series of parallel lines. Bolts and screws also can form the basis of patterns conceived by young minds. Leatherworking tools are conveniently shaped and, although intended, for example, to perforate a leather wallet for lacing, will nicely cut a series of slots in a small ornament. Similar to one leatherworking tool, a dressmaker's pattern tracer indents the shiny ornaments quickly, easily, and perfectly.

Many Mexican ornaments are three dimensional. Use a single-edge razor blade or a razor blade held in a holder to cut the aluminum litho plate. The secret in cutting this aluminum is to make a *single* cut, guided by a straight edge. Then flex the aluminum, which will break cleanly. One lovely ornament was made from a rectangular piece of aluminum. Thirty-six long cuts each one-quarter inch apart were made, leaving an uncut border on the four edges. Each of the 36 pieces was flexed free. The cut rectangle was bent to make a tube, which was punched with a paper punch and riveted with a dressmaker's riveter. The two open ends of the cylinder were pressed toward each other and the 36 pieces bent gracefully outward, forming a lovely shape. Two small, short pieces were then riveted to the inside of the cylinder, permanently holding this shape.

Patterns

Cookie cutters come in a variety of shapes, including stars and sleighs and other Christmas figures. Depending on the scissors available, select shapes with many straight line cuts, like stars. Crescent moons with smiling faces also are easy to cut. The whole activity can be geared toward encouraging children to suggest unlikely tools and shapes. They will find that a nicely cut-out pattern, embossed and painted, can be mounted on a background of colored cardboard to make a Christmas greeting card that will never be forgotten, since the recipient can remove the ornament from the card to hang on the tree each year. Spread a paper clip apart to make a hook, then insert it into a hole pierced in the top of the ornament with a paper punch. Painting comes last and gives the crowning touch.

Paint

The most challenging problem in creating Mexican ornaments is finding brightly colored paint that yields the transparent, almost watercolor effect found on ornaments made in Mexico. Different approaches will produce lovely results. Fast-drying model airplane "dope" is available in very inexpensive small bottles (which many children may already have at home). Select at first the "metallic" colors, which are more transparent. Use small brushes or Q-tips for applying the paint; remove mistakes with thinner. Thinner or nail polish thinner may also be used to remove the lines of printing from the aluminum sheets, although automotive brake fluid, remarkably, removes the printing residue instantly. It should be used by adults, not young children, though. "Never Dull" aluminum polish (available at hardware or antique stores) produces a mirror-bright surface.

Red nail polish yields a key Christmas color. Nail polish offers many advantages: high quality, fast drying, and a built-in, excellent brush. To create your own colors, add plastic dyes to clear nail polish. Available nationwide at American Handicraft stores, the dyes used to tint casting plastic enable you to create just the colors you want with precise control of hue and transparency. Five to ten drops of "transparent" color dye will tint a bottle of clear nail polish. American Handicraft also sells a "glass stain" in vivid, transparent colors. Apply the paint sparingly here and there. Frequently, the Mexican artists apply a drop of color to areas outlined by punch marks such as eyes or buttons. Sometimes however, they color whole areas. They seldom color the entire ornament, relying on the contrast between the silvery metal and the transparent brilliance of the paint for a decorative effect.

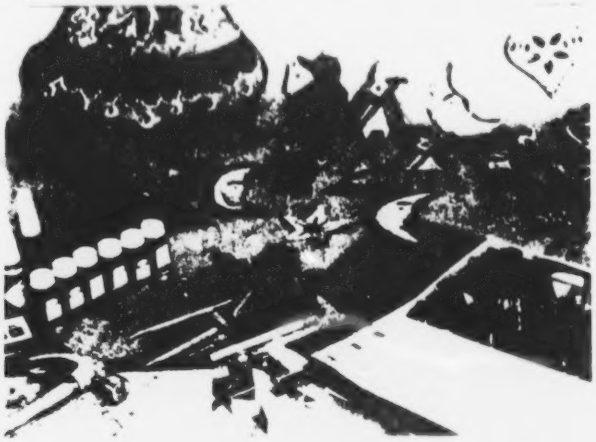
Identification Stamp

Authentic Mexican ornaments often bear a stamp of origin such as "México." You may wish to identify the origin of your ornaments, perhaps by the name or abbreviation of the school or the year they were made. Typewriter repair shops may give you or a student a few typewriter letters (the smaller the better), which you or they can solder together, attached to a foot or so of heavy copper house electrical wire. Ask that the upper case letters of the type be ground off after they have been soldered together. It's best to start with no more than a couple of letters. This steel type is extremely strong and durable. This identification stamp will prove most helpful if you decide to use this technique as a fund raiser.

A Fund Raiser

If carefully made, these delightful Christmas tree ornaments will be sought after and prized by many people. You will probably find eager customers delighted to purchase one or more of these ornaments for one or two dollars each. It seems entirely possible that a classroom could sell hundreds to raise funds for a worthy project. The children would probably set high standards of workmanship before they released a Mexican ornament with their own stamp on it.

Above all, making ornaments for a bicultural Christmas tree should be a delightful activity for the children that calls attention to some differences in cultures but that helps them create something beautiful born from their own imagination.



BRAZILIAN CARNIVAL MASKS

María Garza-Lubeck

The world-renowned carnival in Rio de Janeiro was first celebrated in 1840. Carnival is the traditional Christian period of feasting and merrymaking immediately preceding Lent, a time for penance. The citizens of Rio begin preparing for carnival months in advance. Though competition for best costume and mask is keen, even the poorest people put together some type of costume and make their own stunning masks.

Below are the instructions for making both a simple (A) and a more complex (B) mask. (A) is better suited to younger children.

Here are some other suggestions:

1. Have your students research and discus the carnival
2. Is there anything similar in the United States?
3. Explain what Lent is and why it is preceded by festivities.
4. Plan a minicarnival for your classes and have every student express his or her creativity by making a mask.

Materials Needed

A. paper bags
colors
construction paper
glue
scissors
magic markers (optional)
string

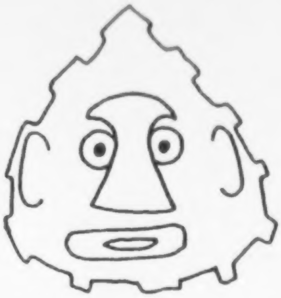
B. round balloons
newspapers
wheat or flour paste
scissors
tempera paints
cardboard
string

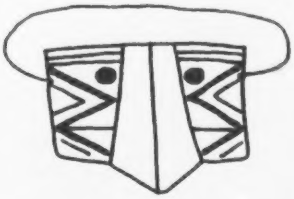
Instructions

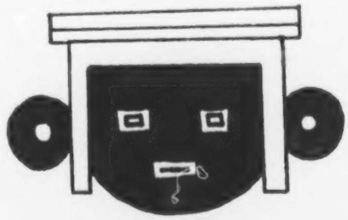
A. 1. Every student is given a paper bag or construction paper with which to make a mask.

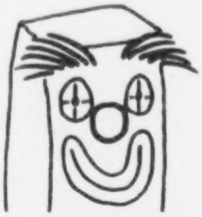
2. Provide colors, construction paper, glue, scissors, and felt pens and have the students create their own mask personalities. See examples.

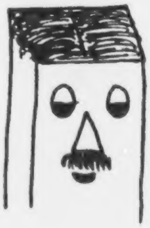
3. If mask is not placed over the head, cut two small holes on either side of the face and attach string to hold it in place.





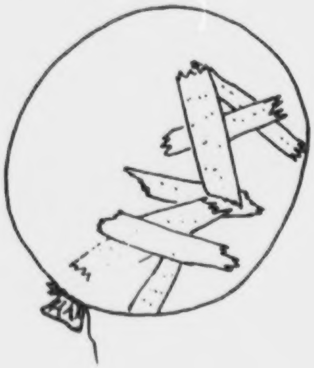




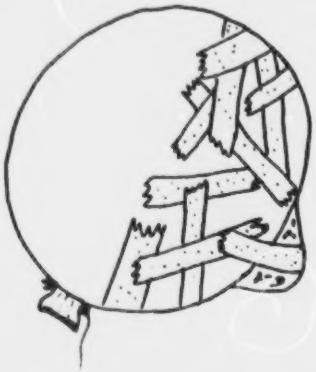


B. 1. Blow up balloons (the round type).

2. Tear strips of newspaper and use either wheat or flour paste and place the strips over *half* of the balloon. Put at least 5 layers on the balloon.



3. Wad a piece of newspaper into a small ball and shape a nose for the mask.



4. Let the mask dry *completely* (overnight would be best). Pop the balloon and then with scissors cut eyes and smooth over the edges of the mask.

5. Paint the masks using tempera paints. If you wish, use glue to attach fake fur, yarn, cotton, etc., to make hair and eyebrows. See examples.

CRAYON ETCHING

Irene Fernández
for Region XIII Education Center

This activity may be used in a variety of ways. Students may draw map outlines, print slogans or mottoes, or sketch historical figures using this technique.

Supplies

1. Wax crayons
2. Drawing paper (white or manila)
3. Scraping tool (scissors, stick, hairpin, comb, nail, nail file, etc.)

Procedure

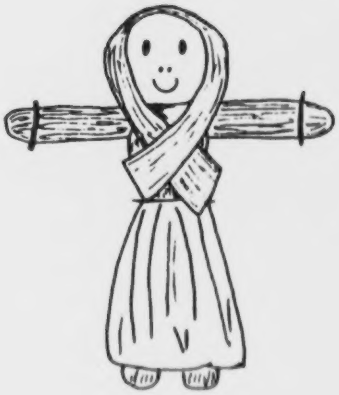
1. Cover the entire surface of the paper with a heavy coat of brightly colored crayons in either a free or a planned design. Avoid using dark colors. The heavier the colors are applied, the better the final result. No definite drawing or design is necessary at this point.

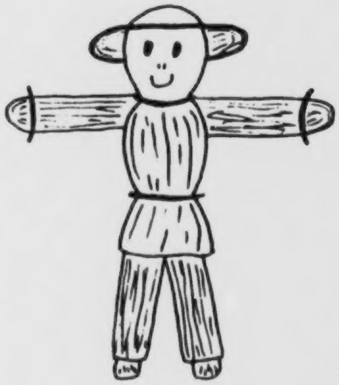
2. Crayon over the bright-colored crayoned surface with black, violet, or any dark color, until no original color shows.

3. With a definite design or drawing in mind, scratch or scrape through the dark surface exposing the color or colors beneath.

CORN HUSK DOLLS

Minnette Bautista
Juanita López





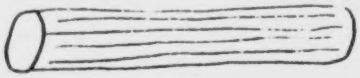
Corn husk dolls can be found throughout much of Mexico and Central America.

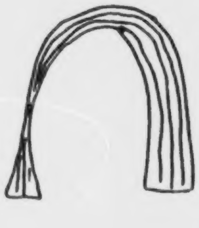
Supplies

Corn husks
Crayons or felt pens or paint
Pan filled with warm water

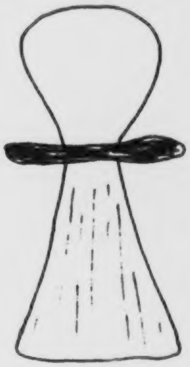
Instructions

1. Soak five husks in warm water for approximately five minutes. Corn husks should be about four to five inches each.
2. Take one husk and fold in a cylinder and then fold in half. This shapes the head and body.

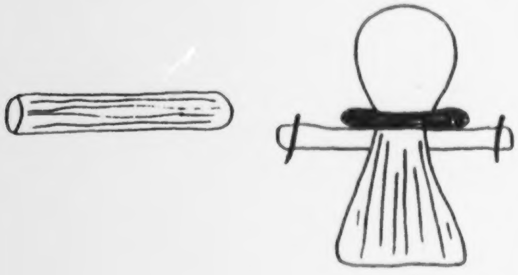




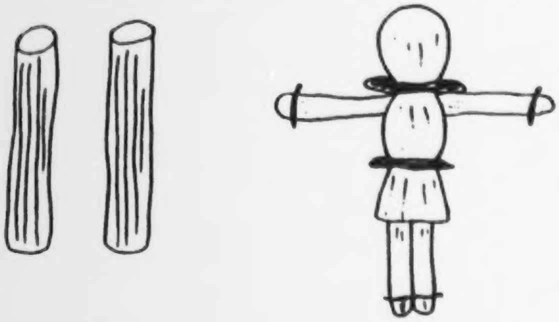
3. Tie a piece of husk around the top at the fold and about one-half inch down to form the head.



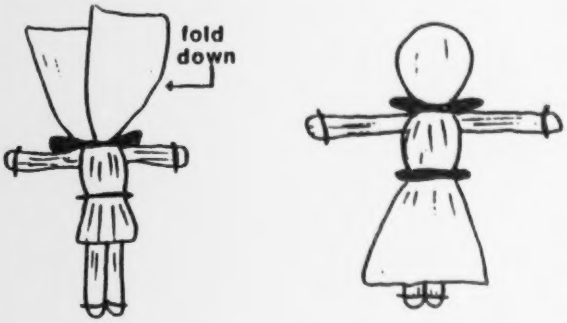
4. Roll one husk in a cylinder and push through under the neck to form arms. Tie at ends of arms to form hands and to prevent raveling.



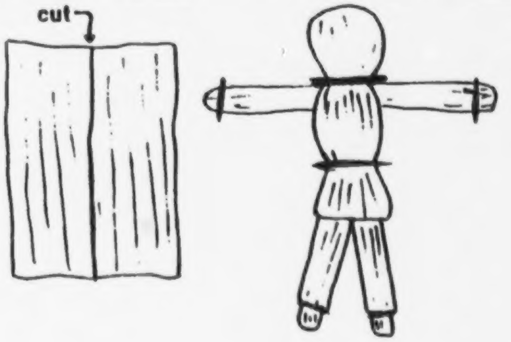
5. Roll two more husks in a cylinder. Push under fold up to the arms. These form the legs. Tie at waist to prevent legs from falling out.



6. To form the dress, take the largest husk and cut in half. Place one upside down at the neck in front of the face and behind, tie at neck and then fold over. Tie the husks at the waist.

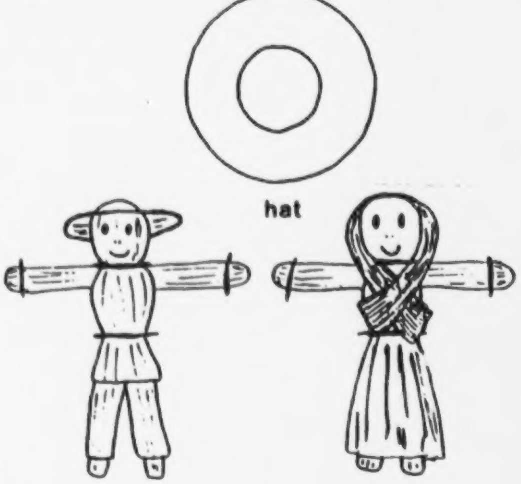


7. To form a shirt, use the same procedure as for the dress except cut the husks shorter. Tie the shirt at the waist also. To form pants, take one husk and cut in half lengthwise. Wrap one piece around each leg and then tie at the waist. Tie at the bottom of each leg to form feet and prevent from raveling.

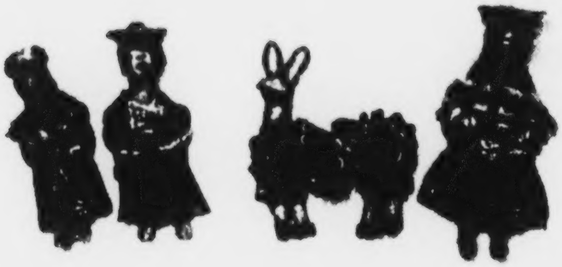


8. Allow the husks to dry approximately 30 minutes and then draw on the face.

9. If desired, and if you have a sixth husk, you can form a hat by cutting out a circle and then cutting out the center to fit over the top of the head. A portion of the head should stick out. You may form a shawl by simply draping half a husk around the doll and pinning at the neck.



DOUGH FIGURES



Small figures or dolls made of dough are fairly common in many parts of Latin America. Your students will enjoy working with dough, preparing and painting the finished product. Library research will yield endless models of regional costumes (for dolls) and even animals such as the llama.

Dough figures of Latin America are made with flour and sugar. But flour and salt produce the same result for less money. The only outside work is baking and, it is hoped, the homemaking department will be generous and share its appliances for your project.

Dough

4 cups flour
1 1/2 cups warm (to the wrist) water
1 cup salt

Mix the flour and salt thoroughly. Add the water and mix well. Knead dough without adding any additional flour for at least 5 minutes.

While shaping the figures, keep unused dough covered with plastic wrap to prevent formation of crust. The dough cannot be stored and is difficult to make in smaller amounts.

Shaping each part of a figure is what gives it depth and character. Strands of hair can be made by pressing dough through a garlic press. Major parts of the figures are molded by hand. A pointless ball-point pen can be used to shaping details such as tiny buttons, eyes, or flowers.

After the figures are "dressed," they are baked on aluminum foil in a *300 degree F* oven. Baking time varies from 20 minutes for small figures to an hour for larger ones. When they feel completely hard, they are done.

After the figures have cooled, they may be painted with custom-blended inks, watercolors, and acrylics. Three to five minutes more in a warm oven dries the painted figures for multiple coats of polyurethane. If desired, they may then be mounted on stained pine boards, felt backing, or hooks for hanging.

(Recipe and instructions are from "Dough People March from Artist's Oven," by June Bibb, *Christian Science Monitor* [29 December 1975]. Reprinted by permission of The Christian Science Publishing Society. All rights reserved.)

INDIAN CEREMONIAL COSTUMES OF HIGHLAND GUATEMALA

Courtesy of
Laguna Gloria Art Museum
Austin, Texas

Guatemalan clothing is particularly interesting because many Indians continue to use "traditional" costumes (the women especially) as their everyday clothing. Before commercial production of *huipiles* and *cortes* on foot looms, nearly every Indian community used designs and color combinations that were unique to their geographic area. Thus it was possible to determine the community of an Indian solely on the basis of his or her clothing. To a degree this is still the case, although regional differences are blurring as Indians buy ready-made clothes with patterns and colors they prefer rather than the clothing that is traditional to their area. When you make *huipiles* in class, urge students to use many colors and patterns, as this is what makes Guatemala clothing interesting.

In Guatemala, a small country south of Mexico, one half the population is indian and still speaks Indian languages. Tradition and crafts have survived from pre-Columbian times with little change. Each village has its own costumes and it is still possible to tell which village an Indian comes from by the clothes he wears.

Some words to remember:

1. *huipil*—blouse, ceremonial costume for women. Sometimes used for weddings.
2. *falda*, *refajo*, or *corte*—wraparound skirt woven on a foot loom
3. *faja*—woven belt
4. *tzut*—head covering
5. *perraje*—shawl
6. *servilleta*—napkin
7. *capexii*—outer garment for men
8. *milpa*—corn patch, the heart of Indian farming

A wide array of colorful costumes have survived from ancient times. Art is an everyday part of living in Guatemala.

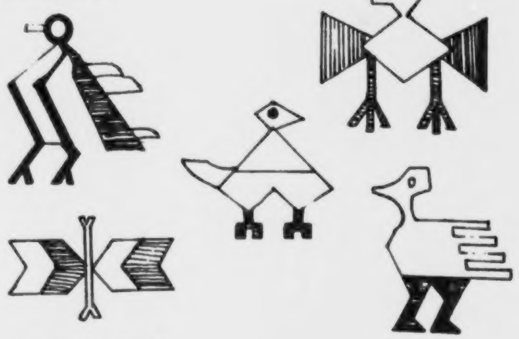
Designs are made by loom weaving, finger weaving, embroidery, and appliqué. Some are achieved by tie-dyeing the thread before weaving.

Three kinds of looms are used:

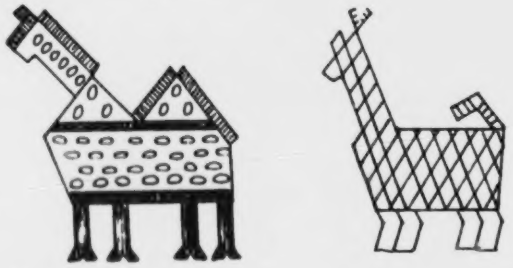
1. back strap loom—used by women to make strips of cloth not over 24 inches wide that are used for *huipiles*.
2. foot loom—usually operated by men to make wide lengths of cloth.
3. belt loom—makes narrow strips for belts and head ribbons.

Here are some of the symbols found on Guatemalan textiles:

Bird motifs

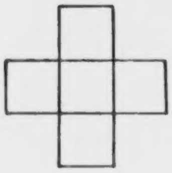


Animal motifs



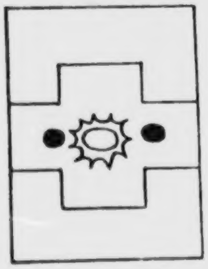
Mayan cross

four winds
four compass points
four sides of the milpa

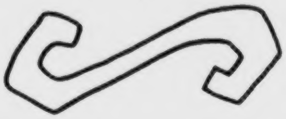


Huipil **(whee-PEEL)**

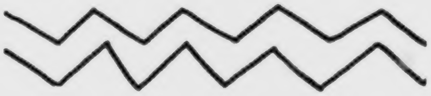
The yoke is in the form of a cross. The neck, encircled by points, symbolizes the sun. The appliquéd circles on the shoulders are phases of the moon.



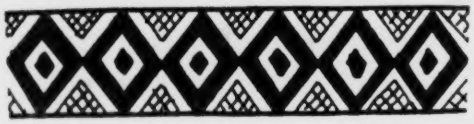
An S lying on its side represents a worm or snake—a bringer of good tidings.



Lightning (fertility)



A puzzle for you: What do you think this design motif represents?

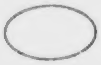


To Make a Guatemalan *Huipil*

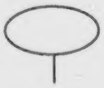
1. Depending on your height, you will need 1 to 1 1/4 yards of 36" or 45" wide fabric.

2. Use lightweight solid-colored cotton.

3. Cut a pattern from newspaper making the neck shape:

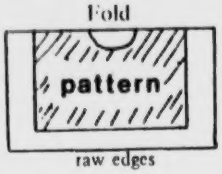


You may add a slit at the front so it will slip over your head easily:



4. Adjust your pattern until you have it just right. The *huipil* should come down almost to your hips. Its sleeves should hit midway between your shoulder and elbow.

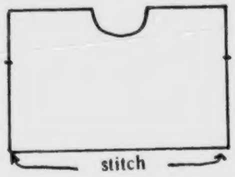
5. Place the pattern on the folded fabric with the neck at the fold, and cut out without cutting the slit:



6. Remove the pattern. Open the fabric out flat in a single layer. If you want a slit, cut it just in front.

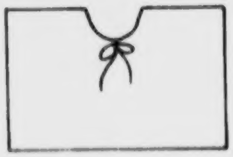
7. Hem all the way around, bottom and slides.

8. Fold together. Stitch up sides from the bottom to fit *you*, leaving openings for your arms:



9. Turn under fabric around the neck and decorate with fancy stitches using colorful embroidery thread.

10. Attach ties made of braided thread or yarn to the slit opening:



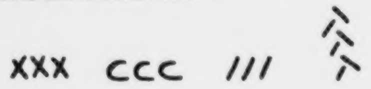
11. Decorate around neck and edges or tops of sleeves using motifs from your motif sheet. Appliqué or embroider or use a combination of both. You might add rickrack that looks like the lightning motif.

12. You might think that your *huipil* doesn't fit because it is so loose and bulky, especially under the arms and around the waist—but this is the way they are supposed to fit.

To Make a Guatemalan Picture

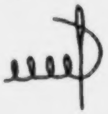
Use your motif sheet for patterns. Glue your motif sheet onto thin cardboard and cut out the motifs. Now you can place the pattern on paper or fabric and trace or cut around the edges.

1. Trace around your motif patterns on a piece of paper. Decorate your motifs with bright crayons. Think of patterns the stitches made:



2. Cut motifs from bright construction paper. Use colors the Guatemalans like. Glue them on a sheet of paper of another color. If you wish, decorate them with crayons or colored pencils to imitate needlework. You might glue pieces of bright thread or yarn on your motifs.

3. Cut your motifs from bright bits of fabric and glue them on a piece of fabric you use for background. You might prefer to use pieces of colored iron-on fabric and iron your motifs on your picture. You can decorate your motifs with needlework. Perhaps you prefer to sew your design rather than glue it. Here is a simple stitch:

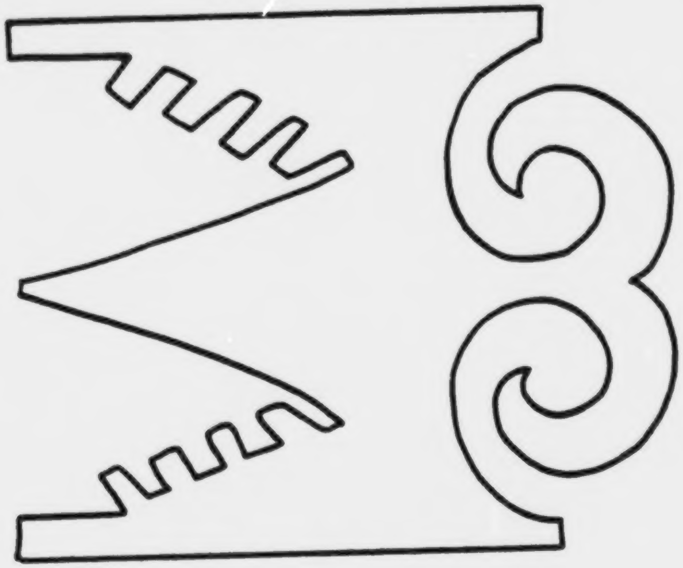


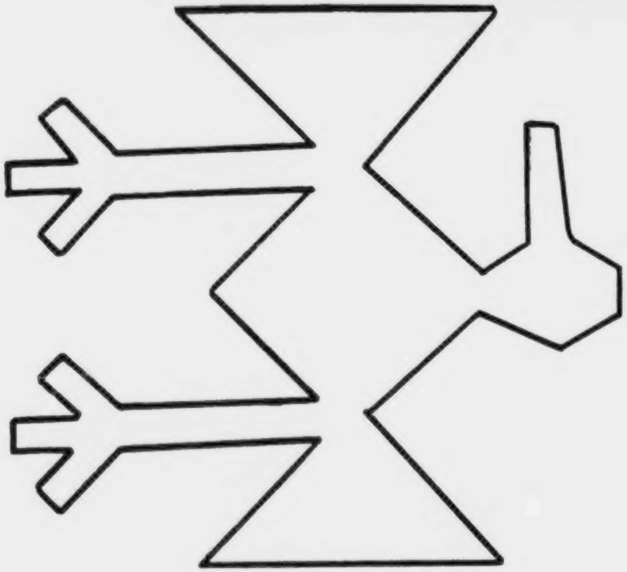
4. If you like to embroider, use the motifs for a design pattern. Use stitches you have learned or made up.

5. Create your own motifs. What is important in *your* life? Guatemalans decorate their clothes with symbols of things important in their lives.

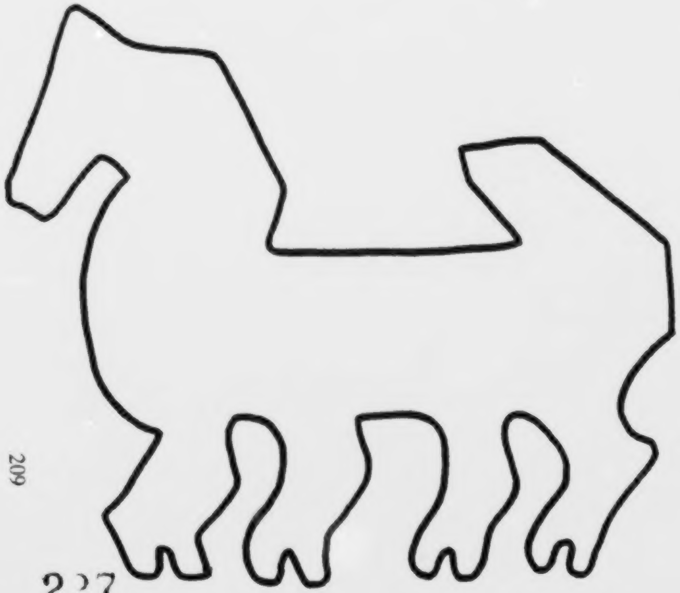
(Reprinted with permission from the publication that accompanied an exhibit at the Laguna Gloria Art Museum in Austin, Texas. The text is by Marian Ford and Sylvia Stevens and the drawings are by Marian Ford. Copyright Laguna Gloria Art Museum.)

Cut figures on outline

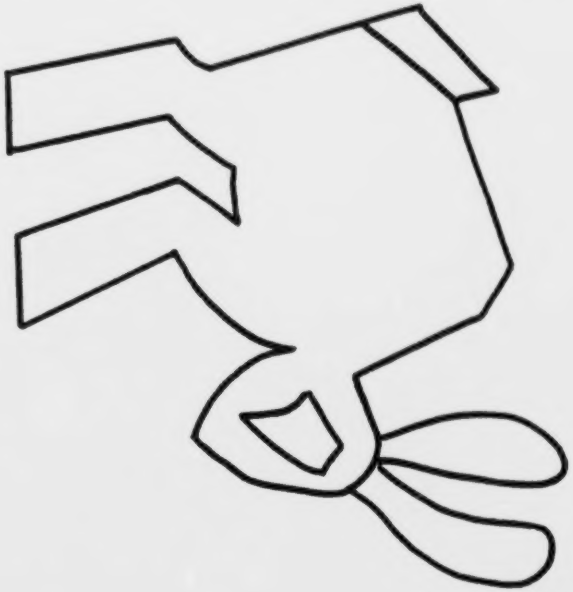




CUT



227



228

LATIN AMERICAN CLOTH PAINTING

María Garza-Lubeck

By using fabric paints, which are available at a minimal cost in most department and craft stores, your students may simulate Latin American artistry through cloth paintings. Several stylized illustrations are given as patterns. The designs may be painted on blouses, shirts, jackets, handkerchiefs, book bags, etc. (Obtain parental permission before beginning the project.)

The first pattern is the quetzal (illustration 2), which is to Guatemala what the eagle is to the United States: a national symbol. You will rarely see a quetzal in a zoo or a cage because it will not live long in captivity. Like the eagle, it is happiest when it is free.

The feathers of this beautiful bird were used by Indian royalty and priests as symbols of majesty in their ceremonial headdresses and costumes. This colorful bird has a bright green crest, crimson belly, and royal blue tailfeathers.

The second pattern is a stylized Indian rendition of a horse (illustration 3). Horses are not native to the Western Hemisphere. They were introduced by the Spaniards in the 1500s. To the Indian, a man riding a horse was *one* being (either a god or a demon).

The other illustrations are general Latin American motifs (illustration 1).

Materials

1. Fabric paints and brushes
2. Material to be painted: washable cotton, sail cloth or kettle cloth, muslin, calico, chambray, denim, gingham. Double knits or man-made fabrics are *not* suitable. The article should be washed before painting to remove sizing.
3. Dressmaker's carbon (sewing tracing paper).
4. Tracing wheel or sharp, pointed object
5. White vinegar
6. Towel and iron
7. Newspaper and paper bags

Instructions

1. Lay a few newspapers with a cut-out portion of a paper bag on top of working surface. This will absorb excess paint and help hold fabric to surface.
2. Smooth out the article to be painted on the working area. Using tracing paper (try to use paper that is the same color as the material to be painted), trace the pattern onto the material. A tracing wheel or any sharp, pointed object will suffice.
3. Using *fabric* paints, paint the design on the material. Let dry completely.
4. Moisten a towel with a solution of half white vinegar and half water. Place towel over *dry* painted material and iron. Iron should not be too hot. This will set the colors

Caring for Painted Articles

Painted articles should be washed separately the first time. Subsequent washings may be done either by hand or machine, using warm water and a mild detergent. *Do not bleach.* If the painting fades after numerous washings, a touch-up with fabric paints will make it as good as new.

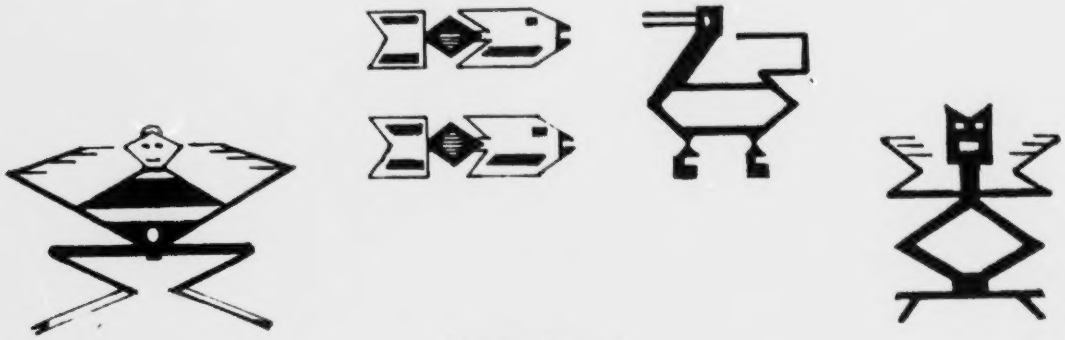


Illustration 1

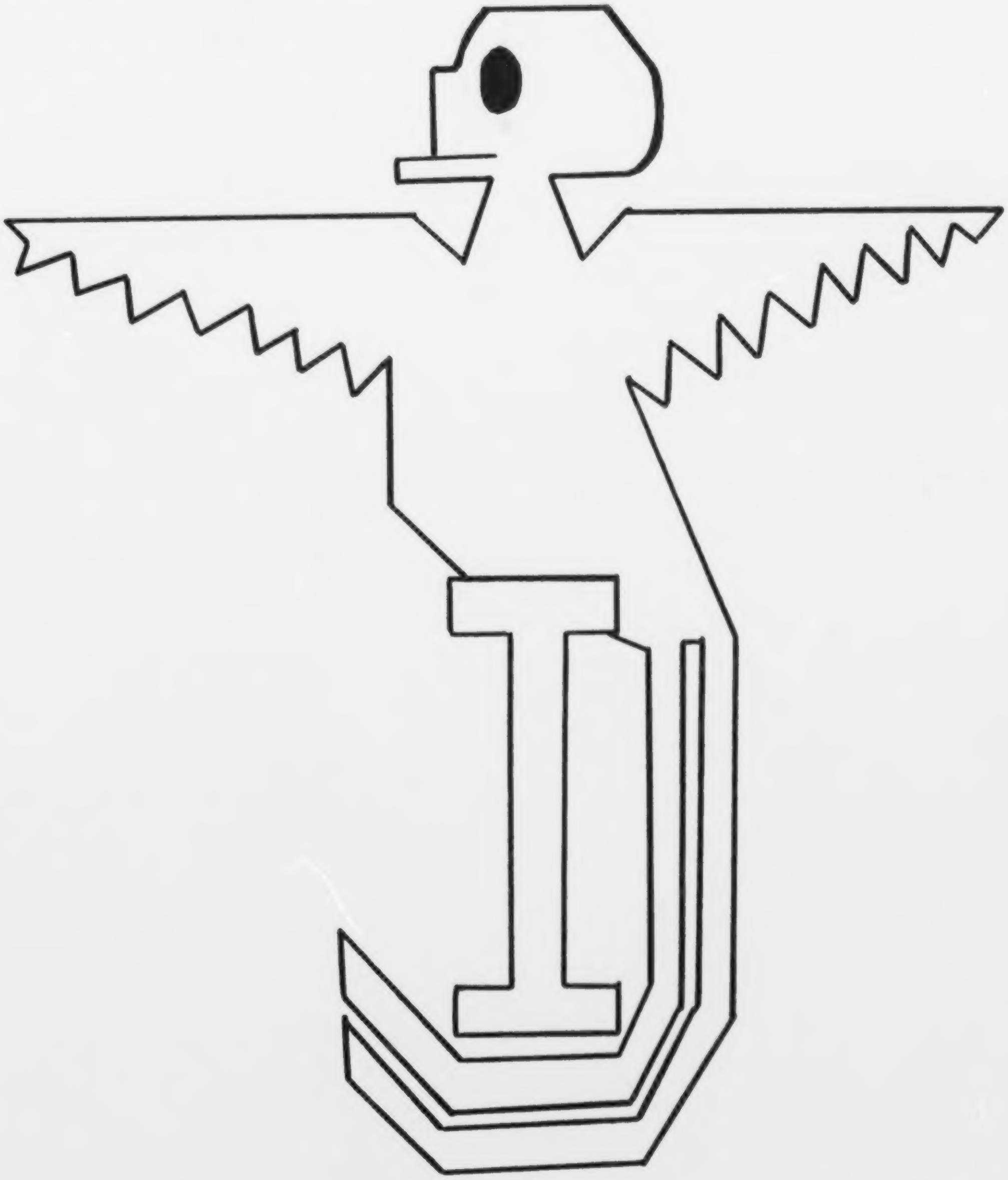


Illustration 2

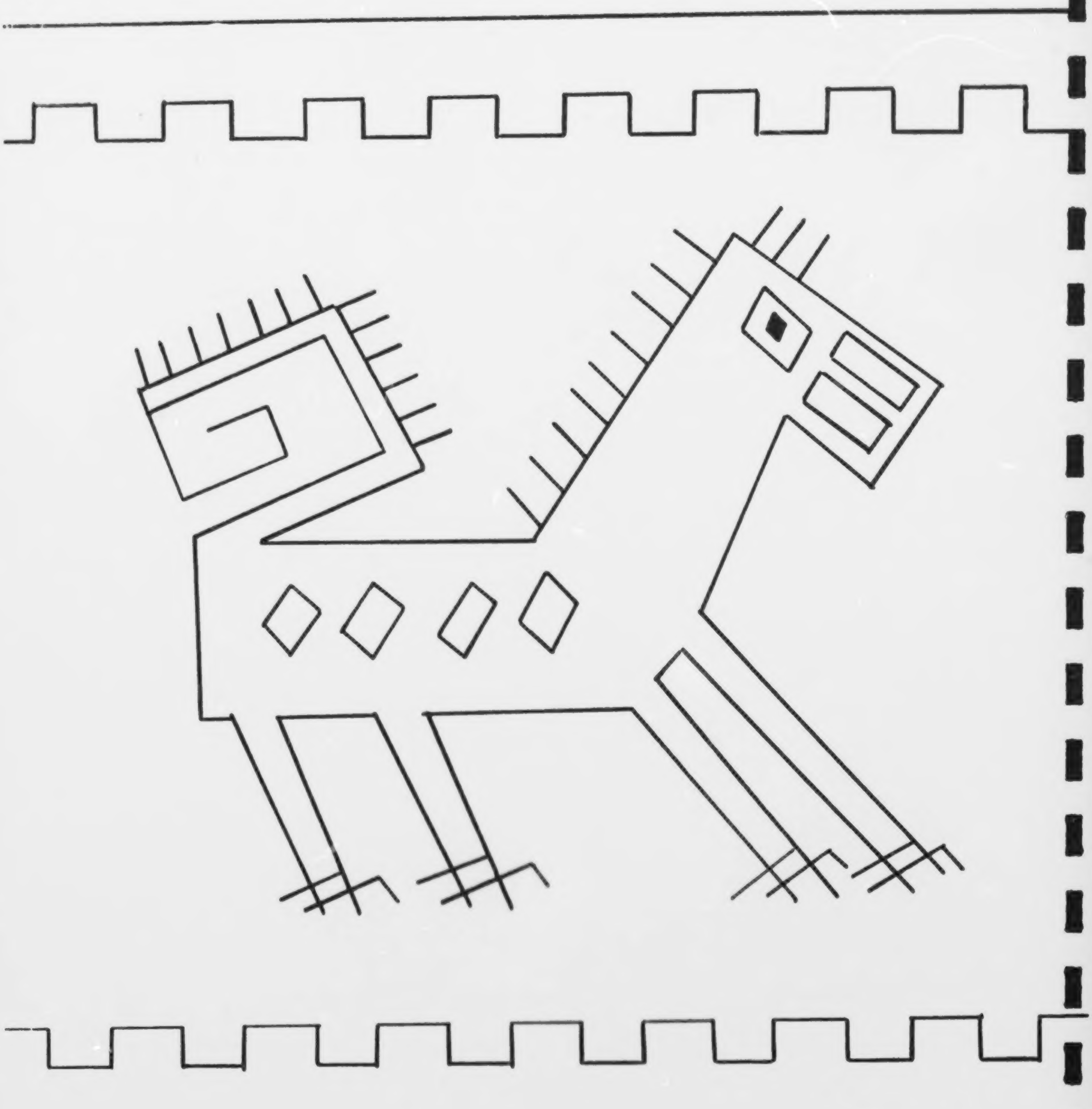
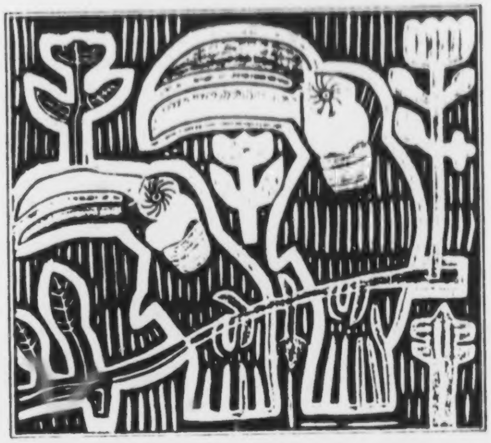


Illustration 3

MOLAS

María Garza-Lubeck



Mola illustration: From *Panama's Position: From the Threshold to the Present.* Panama: Asociación Panameña de Relaciones Internacionales, 1973.

The Cuna Indians of the San Blas Islands off the coast of Panama have contributed a unique art form to the rest of the world—the mola. A mola was originally a suit or a dress, but today is is primarily manifested in women's blouses or wall hangings. In essence, a mola is a beautiful and intricate reverse appliqué featuring an inlay technique that can vary in thickness from two to four layers of material. Bright colors such as red, yellow, and orange are the predominant favorites for molas. The background is usually a darker color, such as dark blue, green, or black. The most common stitches are the hem, or blind stitch, used for joining layers of material, and the running and chain stitches, used to illustrate details such as eyes and mouths.

Woman's Day (May 1966) in "A Fascinating Craft from Panama: Reverse Appliqué," describes the mola technique:

> Conventional appliqué is usually done by cutting under the raw edges to the shapes and then sewing them to another, larger piece of fabric to form a complete design. But the Cuna women work in reverse. They take several pieces of cotton fabric of different colors and baste them together along the outer edges; then working from the top layer down they cut through the various layers to create fanciful designs. As the shapes are cut out, the edges of the openings created are turned under and sewn to the fabric underneath. The color that shows through the openings depends on the number of layers which are cut through a particular place.

It is ironic to note that in the 1920s local government leaders sought to abolish the mola. They felt it more progressive to have the women of the islands adopt plain dresses. While there was no organized resistance, many women chose to ignore the rule. The mola endured.

All grade levels can participate in making molas. Younger children can make molas using colored construction paper, burlap, or felt by pasting the different layers of materials used. Designs can also be kept simple. Fish, worms, butterflies, flowers, birds, etc., are suitable for elementary students.

Junior and senior high school students may be challenged by using more intricate designs and sewing, instead of pasting, their mola. Jorge Enciso's *Design Motifs of Ancient Mexico* offers a wide variety of prints that can be used as designs. The students may even wish to use a more personal design. Modern Cuna women use motifs taken from day-to-day living. Molas featuring everything from religious ceremonies to a can of sardines, complete with wording and illustrations, are reflective of Cuna daily life.

Materials

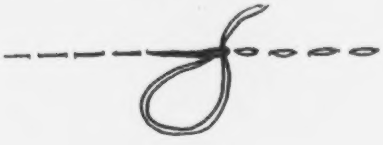
Several colors of construction paper or fabric
Needle and thread
Scissors
Glue

Instructions

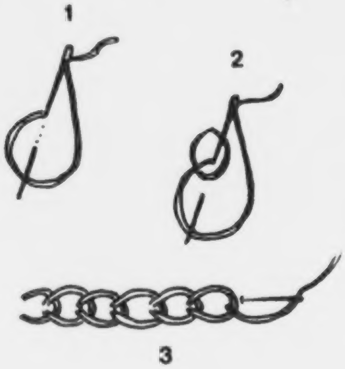
1. Students choose their design and draw it on scratch paper.
2. Have the students decide on the size of their mola. The traditional size measures 16" by 24". It would be wise not to make them any larger. Younger children will work best with small molas.
3. Four colors to work with is the most desirable number. Two should be the full length of the mola. Younger children may insert pieces of the other two colors into the molas.
4. "Draw the central motif on the top layer of paper or fabric. Draw around it again, leaving 1/4 inch between the lines. When cut, this will reveal the second layer. Cut other designs in the top layer. Insert third and fourth colors between top and bottom layers."[1]
5. If the mola is to be sewn, turn back the edges and sew them down using a hem or blind stitch. When illustrating details such as eyes or mouth, use a chain or running stitch.

   (a) The hem or blind stitch—a regular sewing stitch. Bring the needle up through the background cloth, catching only the edge of the cloth to be appliquéd. Reinsert the needle close to the same point in order to keep the surface thread as invisible as possible. Continue in the same manner.

   (b) The running stitch



   (c) The chain stitch



Sources

Periodicals

National Geographic, August 1974
Américas, April 1973
Smithsonian, November 1975
Woman's Day, May 1966

Books

Chaves, Enrique. *About Molas*. Florida State University Isthmian Anthropology Society, Panama Canal Press, 1969.

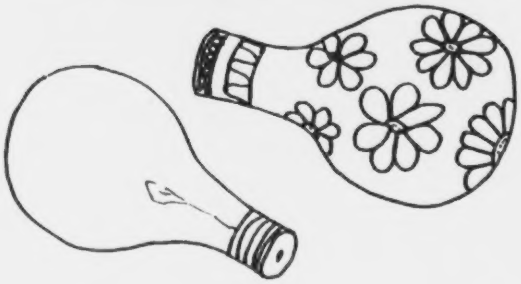
Comins, Jeremy. *Latin American Crafts and Their Cultural Background*. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard, 1974.

Note

[1] Mary Beth Trece, Lawrence High School, Lawrence, Kansas, *Learning about Latin America*, quarter course teaching unit for secondary school classes, "Activity—Mola Making."

MARACAS

Irene Fernández
for Region XIII Education Service Center



Maracas are musical instruments whose origin is derived from the Taíno and African indigenous elements of Puerto Rico. Although Puerto Rican maracas were originally made from gourds, a similar musical effect can be produced with more common materials.

Materials

1. Burned out light bulb
2. Paper towels
3. Newspapers
4. Glue

Instructions

1. Cover a burned-out light bulb with wet strips of paper toweling.
2. Cover this with more strips dipped in glue.
3. The next layer should be newspaper so you can be sure that the entire surface is covered.
4. Continue adding layers, alternating the toweling and newspaper, until about six layers have been put on.
5. The last layer should be toweling to provide a better painting surface.
6. When dry, decorate as desired—poster paint, crayon, lacquer, or enamel may be used.
7. Break the bulb by tapping sharply on a solid surface. The broken glass makes the rattling sound.

METAL MASK RELIEFS

"The artwork done before the arrival of Christopher Columbus is known as pre-Columbian art. The pre-Columbian craftsmen of Panama and Peru made beautiful relief masks, pictures, and jewelry from thin sheets of gold. A relief is a design that is raised from the background. The early craftsmen of Peru and Panama used gold for their relief designs because it was soft and easily worked. It had no monetary value because there was so much of it. It was in Peru that sheet metal relief design, or repoussé, reached its height. Today, repoussé is a popular art form in many Latin American countries.

Craft stores sell thin sheets of copper and brass foil for repoussé work. Aluminum offset mat, used by printers, can easily and inexpensively be obtained. With this material your students can simulate the work done by Latin American craftsmen" (Comins, pp. 14–15).

Materials

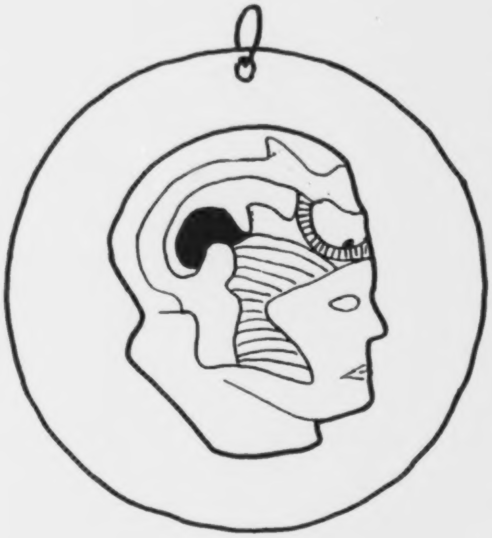
Sheet of brass or copper foil 6" square or 6x8"
Fine-line felt-tip marker
Black acrylic paint
Scissors
1/2" plywood or stiff cardboard
Ball-point pen
Black Magic glue

Instructions

1. Make a sketch on scrap paper.
2. Smooth out the metal foil, then with the marker draw your design on the foil. (Don't worry about mistakes, this will be the reverse side of your picture.)
3. Place the mask on a thick pad of newspapers and press hard with a ball-point pen over the lines and areas you want to press out. When you are through, turn your work over and your design will be raised from the background.
4. If you wish, mount the picture on plywood or cardboard. Use black acrylic paint on this and then glue your picture onto the frame.

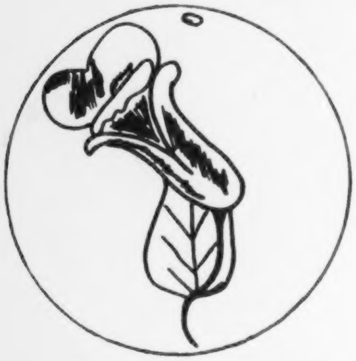
Bibliography

Comins, Jeremy. *Latin American Crafts and their Cultural Backgrounds*. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1974.



METAL OR CLAY CHILEAN PENDANT

María Garza-Lubeck



The Copihue is the national flower of Chile. Copihues bloom in shades of vibrant red, delicate pink, and white. They grow wild from October to July. To poets, they are "the droplets of Indian blood, the bright blossoms of pain."[1]

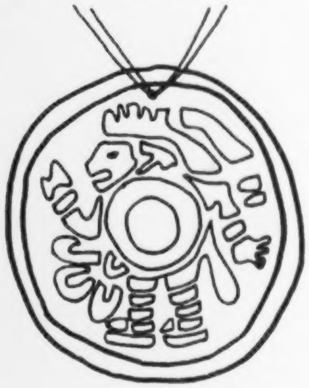
Chilean Pendants

By using clay or lithoplate,[2] your students can make jewelry reflecting Chilean motifs (or any Latin American themes). Two examples are given here. Your students may obtain more designs or patterns by doing library research. Also, Jorge Enciso's *Designs from Pre-Columbian Mexico* (New York: Dover Publications, 1971) is a very good source for obtaining Latin American motifs.

Metal Pendants

Materials

Lithoplate
Brown tempera paint
Any size lace, leather strip, or chain (for necklace)
Scissors
Brushes



Instructions

1. Cut the lithoplate to desired pendant size. Don't worry about the edges; they will not cut the hands of your students.
2. Draw chosen design on a sheet of paper that is the same size as the pendant.
3. Lay the paper on top of the pendant and, using a ball-point pen, follow the lines of your design, pressing down firmly.
4. If desired, paint the pendant with watered-down tempera paint to give it an antique appearance.
5. Cut a small hole on the top of the pendant and insert lace, leather strip, or chain. A paper punch will make the hole.

Clay Pendants

Materials

Small container lid
Rolling pin (optional)
Toothpick or pencil
Lace, leather strip, or chain

Instructions

1. Roll out a piece of clay until it is about 1/4 inch thick.
2. Press lid cover down on clay and then remove circular form.
3. Using a pencil or toothpick, draw design onto clay.
4. Poke a hole in the upper part for attaching a chain.
5. Let clay harden completely before wearing pendant.

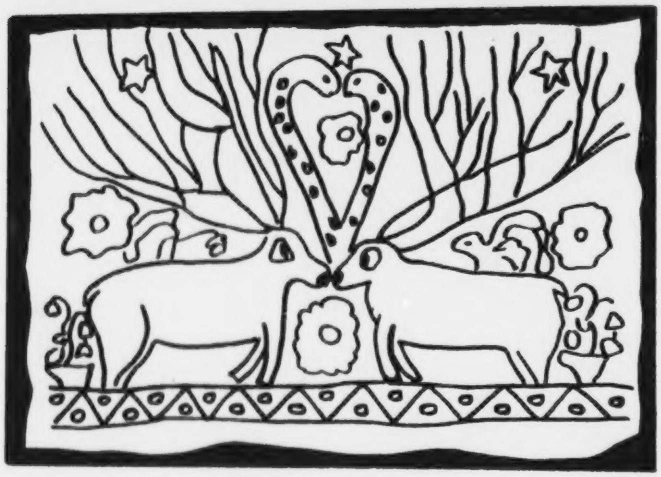
Notes

[1] *Chile in Pictures*. New York: Sterling, 1974. Visual Geography Series.

[2] Lithoplate—material used by printers in offset printing. See article on bicultural Christmas ornaments, by Mark Seng.

PAPER MAKING IN ANCIENT MEXICO

Irene Fernández
for Region XIII Education Service



In ancient Mexico, before the arrival of the Spaniards, paper made of bark played an important cultural role. According to ancient writers, great quantities of paper were used in religious ceremonies as offerings to the gods and for ornamenting idols in temples and palaces on certain feast days. Bark paper was also used in hieroglyphic books, and the Codex Mendoza, one of the tribute books of Moctezuma II (1502–1520), identifies 42 centers of paper making and records that the cities of Amacoztitlán and Itzamatitlán paid a tribute of nearly one-half million sheets of paper every year.,

Paper making still flourishes among natives of remote places, one of which is located in the northwestern part of the state of Veracruz and another on the borders of the states of Puebla and Hidalgo in a small Otomí village called San Pablito.

Paper making in San Pablito is mass production. The men procure the necessary bark, the women make the paper following a process that is essentially the same as the one used by the Aztecs. The process, although relatively simple, requires skill, patience, and experience to produce a high grade of paper. The paper is made from the inner bark of the mulberry tree and from a wild fig tree called amate. The bark with the bast or inner fibers is peeled from the trunk of the trees in the spring just before the rainy season.

The fibers are then removed from the outer bark by hand and washed to remove the milky sap, which the Otomíes call *leche* (milk). The fibers are dried and stored if they are for future use. Otherwise, they are washed thoroughly and boiled in lime or ash water for several hours. When the fibers are soft, they are rinsed in cool, clean water, and then they are ready for use.

While making the paper, the women place the strips of fiber in a wooden container, or *batea*, filled with water to keep them soft. The strips are divided into two or three parts and placed in a rectangular pattern on a smooth wooden board and pounded with a grooved beater until they are felted together into a sheet. The beater is usually made of stone, although the natives of Chicontepec use dried corncobs scorched in fire. The boards with the wet fibers are then set out in the sun to dry. Once dried, the paper is easily lifted off the board.

Until recently, the paper made of bark was used only for witchcraft; the Otomíes sold it at their local marketplaces. However, the increasing demands of artists and decorators have encouraged the Otomíes to make longer sheets that are used for painting traditional designs and sold throughout Mexico and in the United States.

The motifs used in the paintings spring from everyday life, the beliefs and surroundings of the villages. Among these are double-headed mythical birds catching squirming snakes with their beaks: these have rain and earthly connotations. The loping graceful deer and insolent cocks symbolize virility and solar deities. Wild flowers and grotesque lizardlike creatures represent the earth and its mysterious power, which transforms the kernel of corn into a golden harvest.

Indian Bark Paintings

Materials

Brown paper bags
Black watercolor or black tempera
Black felt tip markers
Fluorescent tempera or ordinary tempera
Paint brushes

Directions

1. Cut or tear an 8" by 10" rectangle or a large enough piece of the bag with which you can work.
2. Soak the piece of paper in water
3. Crumble and wring until dry.
4. Place the paper on a smooth surface and brush with watered-down black tempera.
5. Set paper out in the sun to dry.
6. Draw a design on the dried paper.
7. Paint the design with fluorescent tempera.
8. Outline the design with the black felt tip marker.

ZAFA-CASA

Maria Garza-Lubeck

Comparable to the Pennsylvania Dutch hex signs that appear on farmhouses to ward off evil is the charming custom of the "Zafa-Casa" found in Peru.

Zafa-Casas are crosses that are placed on the roofs of new houses. In many of the smaller towns or villages the building of a home is a community effort. The completion of the home calls for a joyous celebration.

In Jauja, this ceremony is known as the Zafa-Casa, or Cubrir la Casa ("cover the house"). The cross that is placed on the roof is the Zafa-Casa and the decorations on it are symbols of success and good fortune. A godfather (*padrino*) is responsible for having the iron cross built and the godmother (*madrina*) is the person in charge of placing the cross on the central wall of the completed house. Then the festivities begin.

Variations of the cross appear in many parts of Peru. It may be made of iron, wood, or steel. The decoration may vary according to the custom of the region. It may be adorned with flowers, ribbons, and colored yarn.

In some parts of Peru, Cusco and Urcos, for example, it is the *ahijados* (godchildren) who bring the gift of the Zafa-Casa to the new homeowners. In Urcos, especially, the Zafa-Casa also carries tiny bottles of holy water, wine, and candy. The Zafa-Casas are unique reflections of Peruvian popular art.

Materials

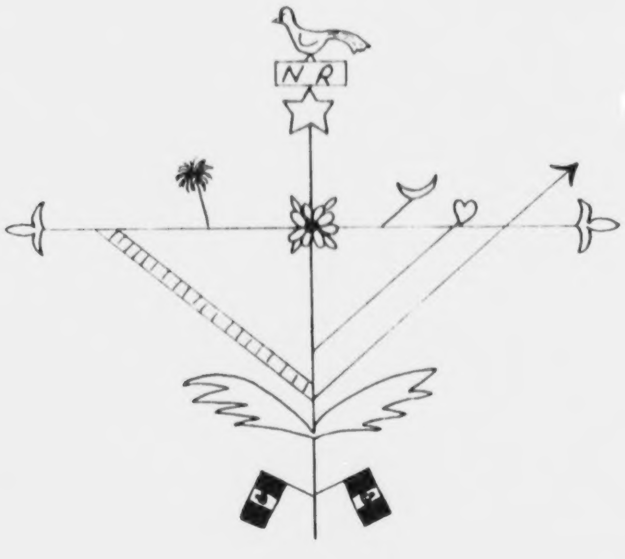
- 2 coat hangers
- Wire cutters
- Glue
- Colored yarn or ribbon
- Pliers
- Toothpicks
- Construction paper
- Black electrical tape

Instructions

Open the hangers and cut two pieces of any length. The horizontal arm should be smaller than the vertical arm. Place them in a cross formation about 3" above the center. Fasten them with black electrical tape.

Have the students decorate their Zafa-Casa with construction paper in any way desired. Remember, the Zafa-Casa is meant to "cover the house" so the students should make symbols of what they want their home surrounded by. Extra wire may be added at other locations (see illustration). Small birds, butterflies, and flowers may be bought at a minimal cost and added to the Zafa-Casa.

After the Zafa-Casas have been made, have the students display them and explain their symbolism.



Luisa Castañeda León, *Arte Popular del Perú*. (Lima: Museo Nacional de la Cultura Peruana, 1971), pp. 19–20.

WEAVING

One of the most important and oldest handicrafts of Mexico is weaving. It was probably begun thousands of years ago, together with ariculture.

At that time, all womven fabrics were made of the fibers from the cotton plant, cactus, and maguey, for wool was unknown before the conquest. *Malacate* was the name given the clay whorl that the spinning was done on. The weaving was done on a horizontal loom with one end tied to a post and the other on a belt encircling the waist of the weaver.

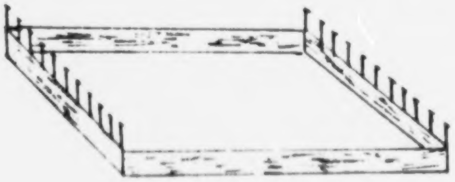
Even on this very simple loom, the weavers were able to make intricate designs. They learned how to make dyes by using insects, plants, and shells, and along with the designes they incorporated the use of feathers to create dazzling patterns.

It wasn't until after the nineteenth century, when the first textile mills were established, that the natives began using machine-made cotton. However, they still weave almost everything they use in wool so that today weaving is one of the most widespread handicrafts.

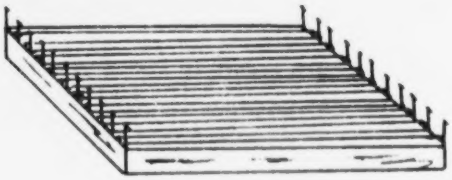
To make a simple loom you need:

- Cigar box
- Yarn
- Small nails
- Needle

1. Place nails on two ends of cigar box (evenly spaced).

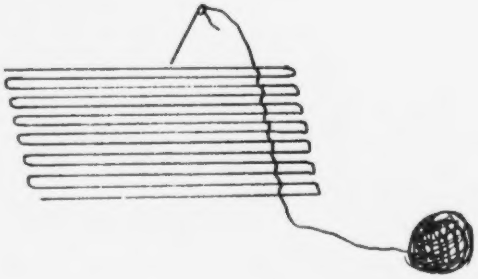


2. Take yarn and wind across the box and from nail to nail.



3. Make a needle out of wire and thread it.

4. Push needle over and under the yarn going one way and over and under opposite threads coming back to the other way.

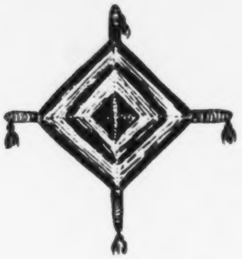


5. Push woven area together occasionally to keep the yarn close together.

From the "Arts and Crafts" section of *Information and Materials to Teach the Cultural Heritage of the Mexican American Child* (Austin, TX: Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1976).

OJO DE DIOS

Irene Fernández



A handcrafted folk art, the *ojo de dios* is the Spanish translation of the Huichol Indian word *sikuli*, or "eye of god." It is the symbol of the power to see and understand unknown things, bringing wishes for good health, fortune, and long life. The *ojos* are messages of the warmth and hospitality of the Southwest and perpetual prayers that ask that the eye of the god petitioned rest on the maker or his or her property.

Since prehistoric time man has reached out to entities seeking blessings. The god's eye has been traced from advanced Egyptian civilizations to the primitive cave dwellers of America and has been found along with cave drawings and stone carvings. Many Indians of modern times have incorporated god's eyes into their religious ceremonies, believing that the ancient gods still have power. Although Christianity was introduced to the pueblos by Spanish friars in the sixteenth century, many homes have both a crucifix and an *ojo de dios* displayed, with some *ojos* being made with the center wrapped to form a cross.

There are many ways in which the *ojo de dios* is used. Parents of little children believe that small *ojos* worn in the hair will ward off spells and evil spirits. Braves of the Pima tribe of southern Arizona and Laguna tribe of west central New Mexico wear them as a part of their hairdressing. Crops will certainly be more plentiful if the rain god is pleased with the eye made for him and placed in the fields, and ponies will surely run faster with the blessings of the gods.

Colors also have special meaning when made into an *ojo de dios*, since certain gods have colors they favor. Shades of blue and turquoise are the choice of the rain god, green pleases the god of fertility, and yellow is for the sun god, Father Creator.

Throughout, the god's eye design has remained basically the same. Only with modern times are variations developing. It is usually composed of two crossed sticks wrapped with colorful yarns from the center outward in concentric rows to form a diamond pattern. This is done by going from arm to arm and around each in turn. The center can be made of black to form a pupil for the eye of the brightest color used to call attention to the center, or sometimes an open space is left in the center "to see through." Many times the center is shaped like a cross, combining Christianity with this ancient religious symbol.

God's eyes found in Egyptian tombs were similar to those made today. The centers were made of gold, yellow, or orange in the belief these colors were pleasing to Amen Ra, the Egyptian god of gods. Believed to be the oldest fetish of its kind in the Western Hemisphere, *ojos de dios* have been found in graves along the Ancón Valley in Peru believed to date back to pre-Columbian times. In some found in northwestern Arizona the dates are placed as far back as A.D 1150 to 1300 . The god's eyes found in graves are thought to have been buried in the belief that they would guide the dead on their journey into another life.

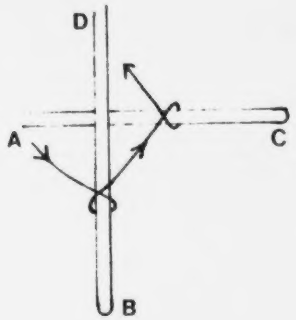
A wealth of information about the *ojo de dios* comes from the Huichol Indians of northwestern Mexico. Much of their everyday living is still based on belief in the power of the god's eye. Although the *ojo* symbol goes back to the pre-Christian era of the Huichol Indians, it is now used as part of the design for their Christian cross. To them it is a symbol to protect, bless the home, and keep the evil spirits away. The villagers do not make their own, as many Pueblo Indians do, but consult a shaman, who is not a priest but a village member who has special training in the meaning of colors and the singing of songs to please the gods. He makes the eyes in a special ceremony for many occasions and after the birth of a child the father has a shaman make an eye for him on long sticks. The center is wrapped for a short distance (about ten inches) leaving the four ends of the stick bare. Each year on the child's birthday a small eye is made on it to win protection for the child until he is five years old.

A tuft of cottonlike substance from the squash blossom was sometimes attached to the end of the "eye" to bring extra significance to the blessing. This has resulted in modern times to the attachment of a tassel of yarn on some of the finished products.

Ojos de dios are not just sticks and yarn, but have a history and meaning and even today are bright, cheerful wishes of good will.

Materials

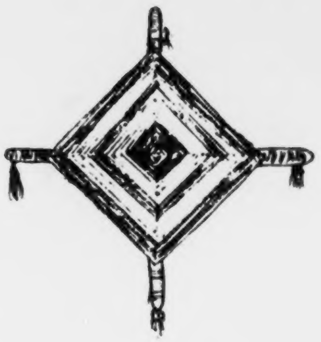
Two sticks, one slightly longer than the other
Colored yarn



Directions

1. Tie the short (A-C) stick to the long(B-D) stick, forming a cross. Use square lashing.

2. Tie one end of the colored yarn at the center of the crossed sticks.



3. Hold the stick in the left hand and with the right hand wind the yarn over B; making a turn over the stick, go on to C, D, and A, each time making a turn over the stick. Whenever A is reached, turn the whole frame over and wrap yarn again over B, C, and D from the opposite side. In this way the design will be the same on both sides. Continue winding until the "eye" is the right size and you want to change color.

4. Add the second, third, fourth or more colors in the same way, tying the end with a knot on A. If you wish, wrap the uncovered portion of each stick with yarn and tie at end.

5. Put a tassel on points A, B, C, and D close to the end of the stick.

THE PIÑATA

Spanish explorers brought the Christmas festivity of the piñata to the shores of Mexico over 400 years ago. Although the piñata has undergone changes, the playing of the game has remained virtually the same.

The pot, filled with toys and gifts, is suspended by a rope at a height just above arm's reach of those who will play the game. The ceiling, a balcony, or the limb of a tree will do very well; it should be used with a pulley or be otherwise movable. Guests usually approach the activity with high anticipation, and it is important to allow ample "swinging room."

One guest, chosen by the party giver, is blindfolded and led to the spot beneath the piñata. There he or she is handed a broomstick, while the others are reminded to stand a safe distance away. An important trick is to give the piñata a big swing so that it will be more difficult to hit. The game can be enlivened even more by giving the person a few spins before sending him or her careening on the way to the piñata.

The guest usually takes three swings at the piñata, while the group sings "Happy Birthday" or any other song appropriate to the celebration. If he or she is unsuccessful—and the suspense is as exciting as the actual breaking—the stick and blindfold are passed to the next guest and the game goes on until the piñata is broken. When the contents fall to the floor, scrambling for the sweets begins.

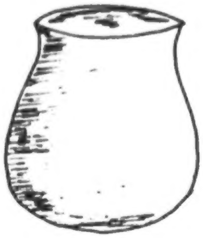
> See the colored paper
> tied around an earthen jar:
> Piñata filled with candy
> and toys from the bazaar;
> It hangs above your head,
> you take a stick to break it,
> And scramble for the candy
> before the others take it.

PIÑATA INSTRUCTIONS

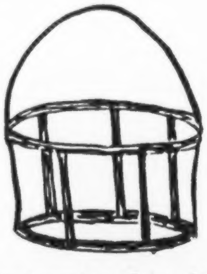
Supplies needed for piñatas

A. Wheat paste (mix with water to a medium thickness)
B. Newspaper (cut in 6-inch strips)
C. Tissue paper

1. The traditional piñata is the clay pot covered with newspaper dipped in wheat paste. Any type of cone formed from newspaper may be attached for this type of piñata. Allow piñata to dry thoroughly and then cover with tissue paper. Cut tissue paper in strips and attach to end of cones with glue.

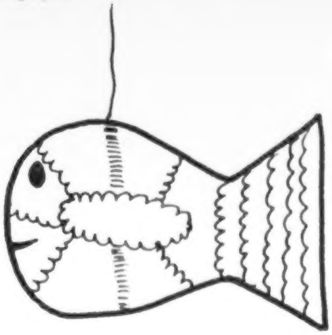


2. The most common piñata today is constructed with bamboo strips. This type is the most difficult. Soak cane strips until soft enough to work with. Form shape of piñata and tie with string at joints. To protect your hands from bamboo cane splinters, wear cotton gloves. Cover frame with newspaper strips dipped in wheat paste. Allow to dry and cover with tissue paper. Please note that, when broken, the clay and bamboo types of piñata can be dangerous.

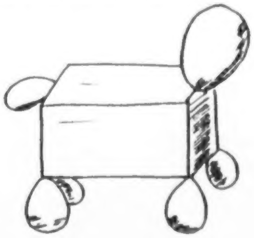


3. An Americanized version of the piñata can be constructed by cutting the design or shape from heavy paper. An example of heavy paper would be large grocery bags. Cut two exact designs and then tape the two together along the edge with masking tape. Leave a space opening your design to stuff in dry newspaper and then tape the opening shut. Cover your frame with newspa-

per dipped in wheat paste. Allow to dry; remove newspaper inside of piñata and then cover the piñata frame with tissue paper.

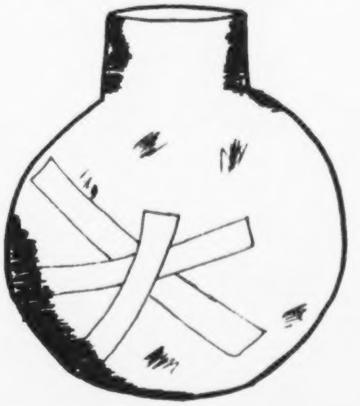


4. Balloons and boxes can be taped together and then covered with newspaper and tissue paper. Balloons by themselves can also serve as a frame.



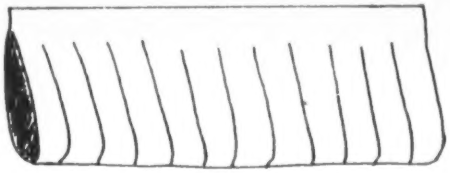
Wheat Paste and Newspaper Technique

Dip 6-inch strips of newspaper into wheat paste and begin crisscrossing of pieces on the piñata frame. Crisscross the paper to add strength. Cover entire frame once; allow to dry thoroughly and cover once again. Use the cover and dry techniques at least three times before adding the final touch of the tissue paper.



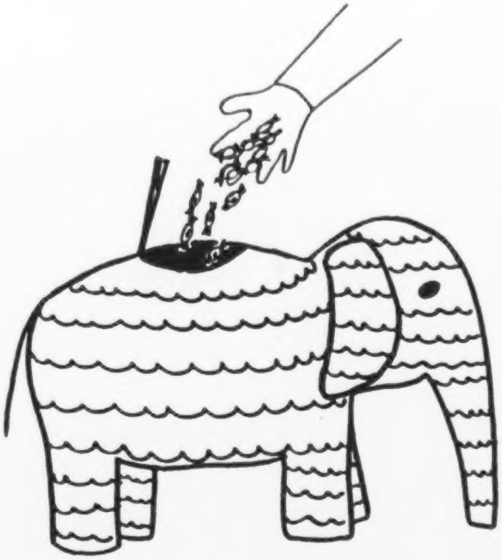
Tissue Paper Technique

Fold a 4-inch piece of tissue paper and glue on edge. Cut strips up to about 1/2 inch from the glued edge. Place glue on the cut edge and then place on piñata. The fold can also be cut in two to add fullness. All the piñata should be covered with these tissue paper strips.



Final Stage

Attach rope to piñata. Cut a semicircle hole in the top, large enough to place candy and small toys into the finished piñata. Replace the flap in the semicircle hole to prevent candy and toys from spilling out. Blindfold the child, hand him a stick, and have fun.



(Text is from the "Arts and Crafts" section of *Information and Materials to Teach the Cultural Heritage of the Mexican American Child*, developed by Region XIII Education Service Center and published by the Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1976. "Piñata Instructions" are reprinted with the permission of the Pan-American Recreation Center of the City of Austin, Texas, Parks and Recreation Department.)

STYROFOAM SCULPTURE AND CUTTER

Mark Seng

With a few inexpensive materials you and your students can create beautiful works of art with a frequently ignored and wasted material, styrofoam. The possibilities are endless. Once you have chosen a design, make a transparency of it and project it on a wall. Tape the styrofoam on the wall. Then trace the design onto the styrofoam. The example given here is the serpent head.

Jorge Enciso's *Design Motifs of Ancient Mexico* and *Designs from Pre-Columbian Mexico* are excellent sources of Latin American motifs.

Styrofoam Cutter

In less than an hour and for only a few dollars you can make a hot wire styrofoam cutter that will prove its worth in many new ways. Quiet and fast, this tool lets you make interesting bulletin board displays from those foam materials used to pack all sorts of things. Or buy 2 by 4 foot sheets from a building supply store for around ten dollars. Perfect for seasonal decorations like Christmas or Easter, styrofoam's unique capabilities will delight your students. Construction takes few tools and few materials, since an ordinary battery charger provides a convenient source of safe, low-voltage current.

Materials

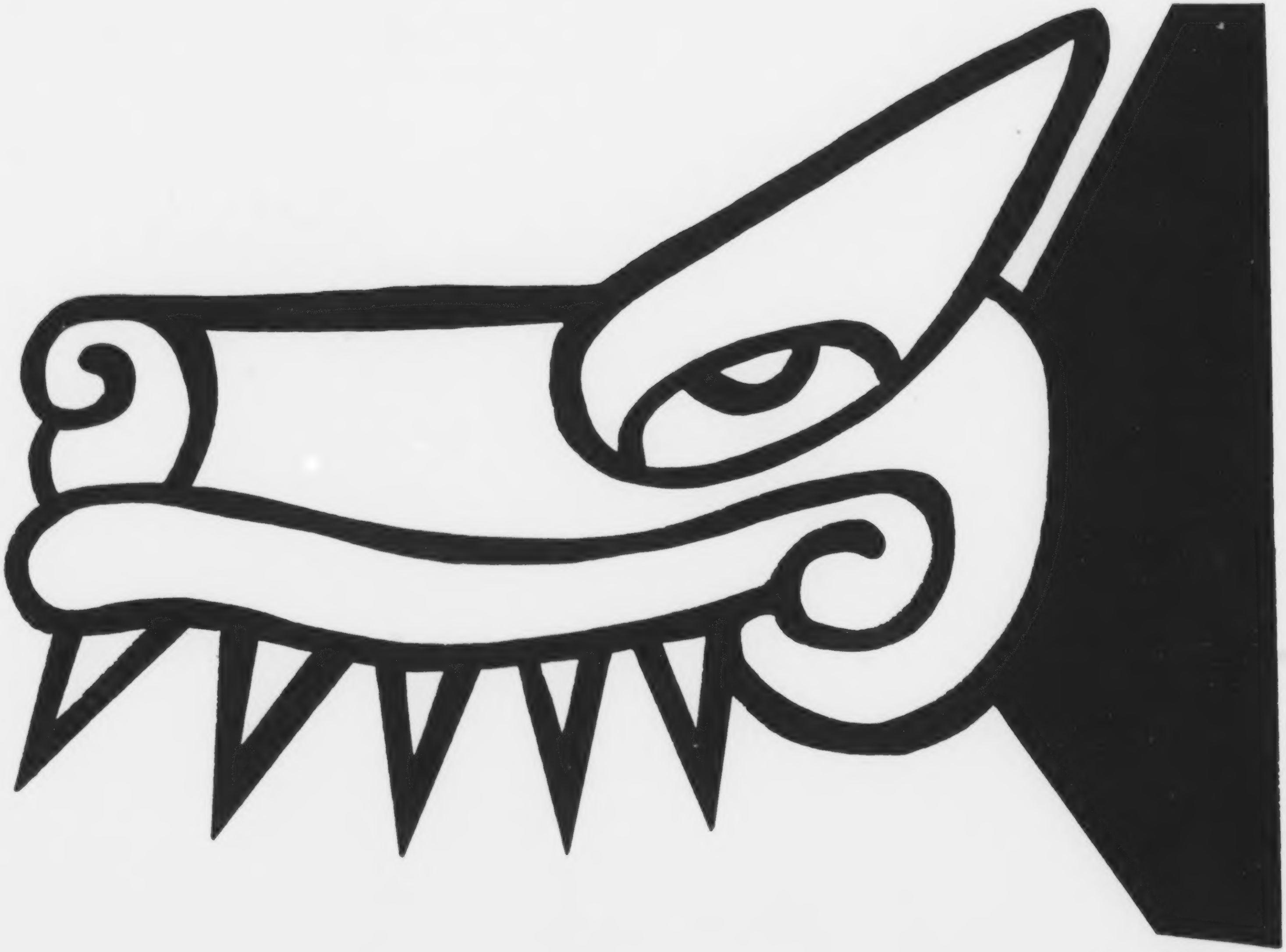
Thirty-six-inch length of 1/4 inch threaded rod with 10 nuts
One wood yardstick
Twelve by 16 inch 1/4 inch masonite
Epoxy
One glass bead, e.g., Tandy Leather Co. #1429-06 (used to make necklaces, etc. Must be ceramic or glass and not plastic, to provide heat insulation.)
Length of 22-gauge nichrome wire

Construction

1. Cut off 10 inches of the yardstick. Cut the other piece into two 13-inch pieces.
2. Drill a 1/4-inch hole in both 13-inch yardstick pieces, 2 inches from the end.
3. Drill two 1/4- inch holes in the masonite. Drill one in the middle, 1 inch from the back; drill the second hole in the middle, 13 inches from the back.
4. Cut 12 inches from the 36-inch threaded rod. With your hands bend the longer 24-inch piece less than a right angle. (Nichrome wire will pull it to a right angle and so be kept taut.)
5. Run 2 nuts to center of the 12-inch threaded rod. Run in one nut 1 inch on either end.
6. Insert each rod end into a yardstick hole to form 3 sides of a box. (Screw on outside nuts.) Insert remaining 10-inch piece 2 inches from yardstick ends to form box.
7. Place these two yardstick pieces fastened together with the threaded rod on the underside of the masonite. Insert the 10-inch yardstick 2 inches from ends of the longer yardstick pieces.
8. Epoxy the box to the masonite locating the threaded rod so that it passes above the hole in the masonite.
9. Epoxy the glass bead in hole, flush or slightly below the surface.
10. Bolt the arm to the masonite. (A wing nut facilitates fastening and removing arm for storage.)
11. Wrap 22-gauge nichrome wire around top arm, pass through glass bead, and wrap around short threaded rod, stretching top arm to keep nichrome wire taut when heated.
12. Attach one battery clip to a side arm on either side and the second battery clip to back. Switch to "6 volts" using 12 volts only if meter reading shows no more than half the current rating of the battery charger (e.g., 2 amps on 6 volts will produce 4 amps on 12 volts, OK for 4-amp battery charger).
13. Use in ventilated area.

Battery Charger and Wire

Buy or borrow a 4-amp, 6 and 12 volt battery charger that has both a meter and a circuit breaker. Plug in the charger for 15 minutes, if it is new or has not been used for 6 months, to provide a "run in" for solid-state components. The meter tells you how much current you are using. The circuit breaker shuts off the current if it goes beyond the rating of the charger. Ordinary 22-gauge nichrome heater wire is readily available in coil from a good hardware store. (The same material is used in 110-volt hotplates.) Insert a nail into a one-inch piece of coil and unwind a two- or three-piece length of straight nichrome wire. Too thick wire will draw more



227

246

247

current than the charger can safely produce, causing the circuit breaker to open. Too thin wire will not get hot enough, even with the unit set for 12 volts.

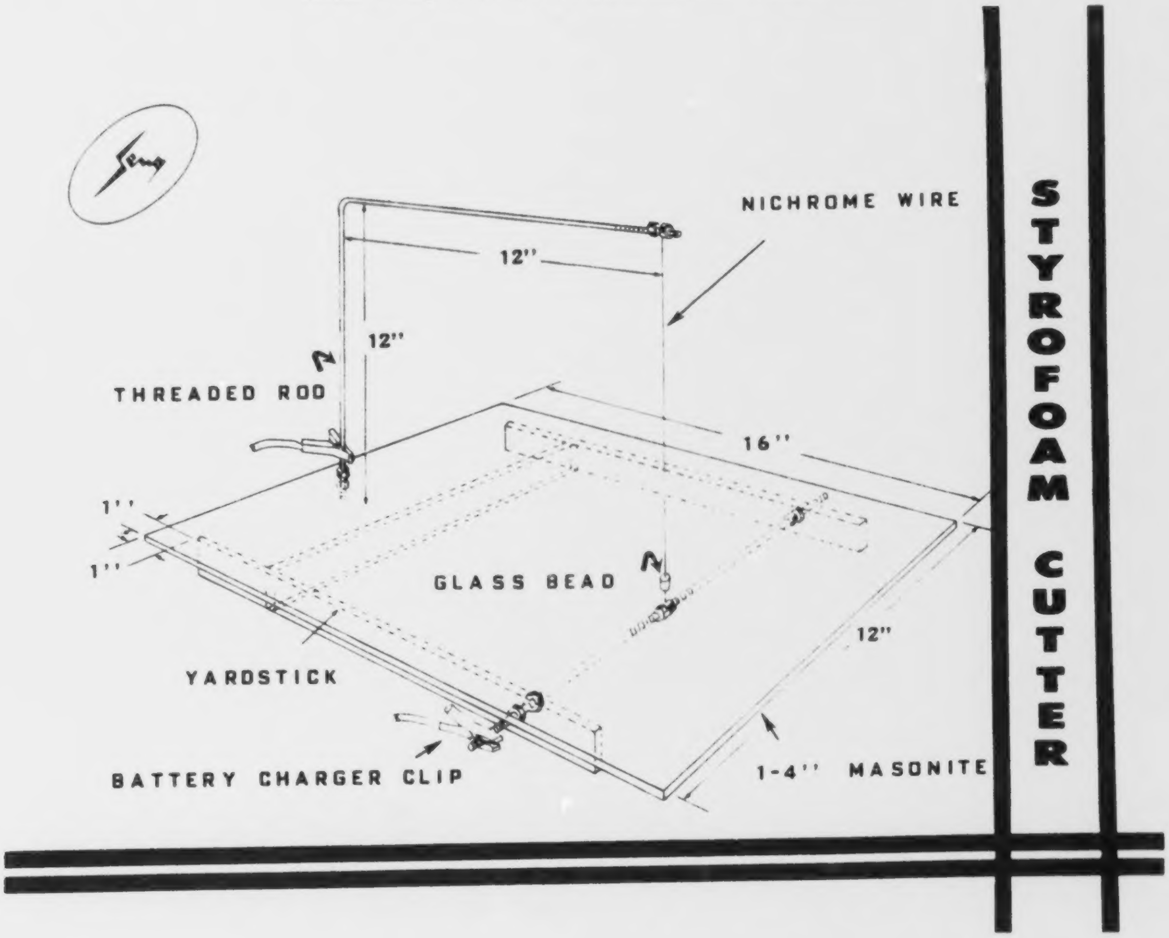
Precautions

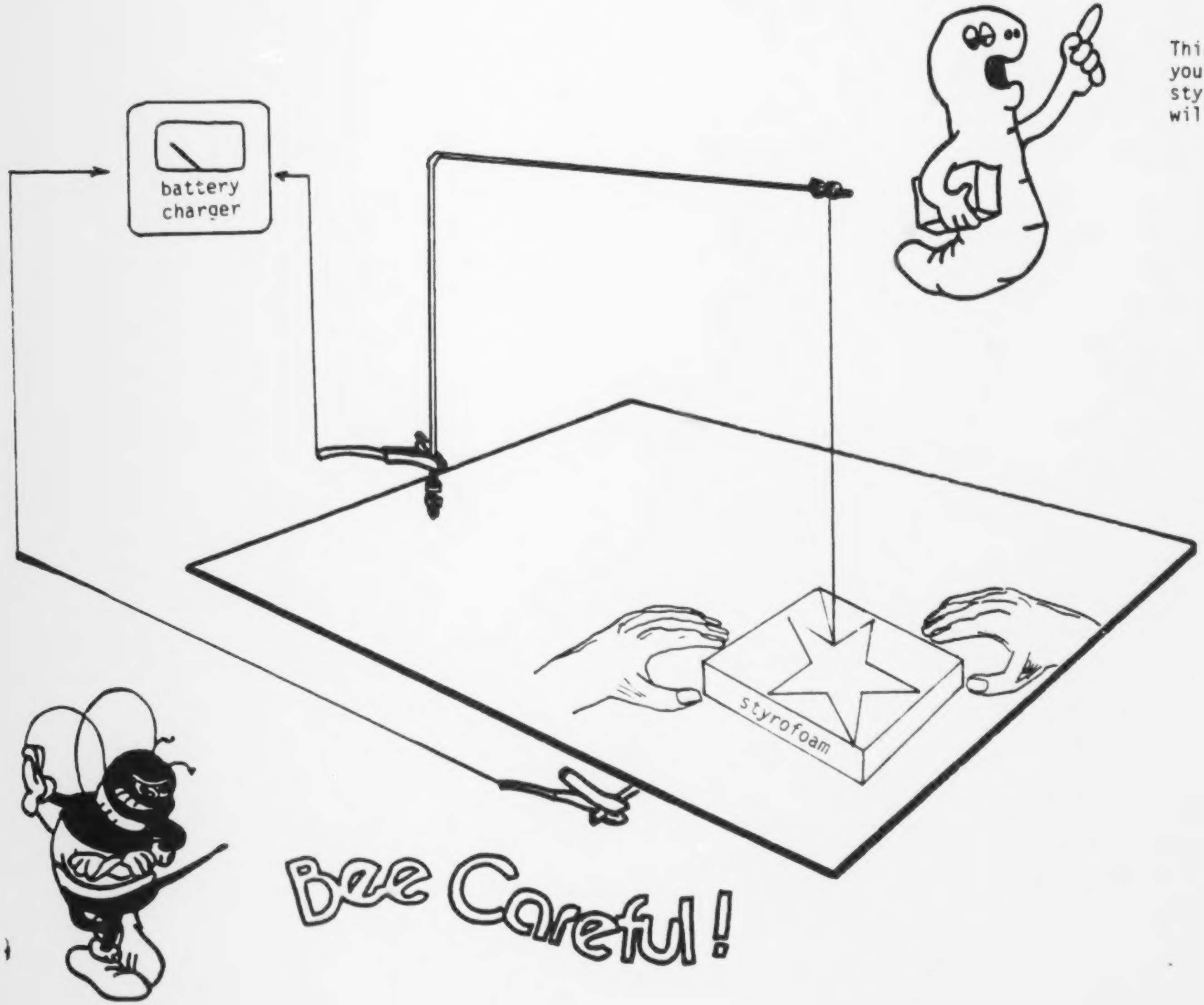
Having selected a reputable battery charger with at least a 4-amp rating (more is fine), use the unit in a ventilated area. The wire will not get red hot unless overloaded, but as with all electrical devices, it must be used with good judgment and adult supervision. The line cord from the 110-volt outlet *must* be kept away from the hot wire, which would melt through it. A wise precaution is to fasten the battery clips to the box with nuts so that a wrench is required for their removal.

Uses

Cut-out cardboard letters pinned to the foam provide a simple way to carve perfect three-dimensional letters for a striking bulletin board display. Paint a block of foam first, then cut out letters for pure white sides. Discount stores or art supply stores sell foam paint in spray cans. Or thin water-soluble acrylic artist's paint with a little water. Christmas decorations are quickly made, as are geometric shapes and sections like lattices, cones, or animal doodles. See how a florist uses a hot wire cutter to get other ideas and materials. Cut outlines of countries or states for eye-catching displays. Characters from children's books brighten a classroom when cut out in giant size. If you are not an artist, project the image on the form and mark it out with a pencil. Select line drawings. Children's coloring books work really well, for example, to make excellent overhead projector transparencies. Xeroxed water-colored Aztec or Mayan figures produce good transparencies. The originals then provide information about authentic colors easily mixed to match with water-based acrylic artists' paints.

This is what your completed styrofoam cutter will look like.




battery
charger
styrofoam
Bee Careful!

This is how
your completed
styrofoam cutter
will look

Create Culturally Authentic Christmas and Greeting Cards

Mark W. Seng

New copy machines now enable you and your students to create colorful greeting cards that will help your language classes or club learn about the target culture in a unique way. The completed greeting cards will appear professionally produced. Since production costs are only a few cents per card, your language class or club can create cards to raise money for projects or for their own personal use. The enthusiasm students display about this activity will be evident to other students and may interest them in language study. This novel method requires no technical skills. The activity that takes the most time, coloring the cards, can be done by individual students upon completion of their assigned work, or as time permits. After discussing selection of a picture, the five simple steps in card production will be enumerated.

Pictures

Look for interesting, culturally authentic drawings, perhaps relating to mythology, ceremonial masks, or sculpture like the Aztec calendar. Cave drawings or pictographs offer another rich source of authentic designs. The size and sharpness of the drawings are not critical because students will redraw the pictures using a simple, mechanical procedure to be described later. The Mexican codices provide hundreds of figures which, when carefully examined, reveal fascinating facial expressions which will be sure winners on finished cards. In the process of searching for good pictures, students can learn a great deal about the culture of the people whose language they are studying. The insight they gain may make a significant difference to some of them in providing motivation for future classroom activities.

In selecting pictures, look for simple line drawings. Early cultures often produced line drawings because of the limitations of available drawing materials, so these will be quite common. When possible, use the same colors as used in the original to keep the drawing authentic. Alternatively, teachers may prefer students to seek out artwork in the library, or create their own artwork which reflects the culture. Classes might compete in selecting a "best message" for the picture chosen. After identifying a picture and message, five steps will yield a finished greeting card. (See Figure 1.)

The original selected may be any size. Project a Xeroxed copy of this original with an opaque projector or make a transparency and use an overhead to obtain a projected image about 4 by 6 inches. (Note: If your projector cannot project an image of this size from your transparency [see Photograph 1], draw the picture about 8 by 12 inches and reduce it on the copy machine to half this size.) Use a hard lead pencil to lightly trace the projected image. Afterwards, go over this pencil line with a thick black marking pen. Use rather thick lines, which will be reduced when copied, to facilitate coloring with the marking pens. Thin lines require excessive care to keep each color in its boundary.

Project drawing and trace to get large original.

Use cut out or "rub on" letters to create message. (Type date, school, price, source of picture for back of card.)

Rubber cement drawing, message, and typewritten information on 11 by 17 inch layout sheet.

Reduce copy onto 8 1/2 by 11 inch paper or card stock.

Color with marking pens and fold.

Figure 1

Lettering

Lettering for the message inside the card should be at least one-half inch high to allow for further reduction when copied. Popular sentiments such as "Seasons Greetings" or "Merry Christmas" in the target language can often be found in printed form. Cut out these words, reducing them via the copy machine as necessary. You can create your own messages with transfer letters which are widely available at art or business supply stores. These inexpensive letters are simply placed over a sheet of paper and rubbed with a blunt object to transfer each letter to the paper beneath. Mistakes can be removed with masking tape.

For the back of the card, words describing the source of the drawing, your school's name, and price, if desired, can be typewritten and ultimately reduced in size, lending still another professional touch to the finished card. Experience has shown that best results can be obtained if the picture, message, and typewritten copy are rubber cemented separately to the 11 by 17 inch layout sheet.

The Layout Sheet

The printing industry creates an original layout much larger than the finished ocpy which is then photographically reduced. This large original allows more working space and greater tolerance. Small deviations are lost when photographically reduced in the printing process. This same procedure is suggested for these student-produced cards (See Figure 2). New Xerox and Kodak copy machines, for example, have this same capacity to reduce original layouts to a smaller finished card. That three different sheets of paper with the design, the message, and the typewritten copy are pasted to the 11 by 17 inch layout sheet will not be observable in the finished product. One helpful technique to ensure that edges of pasted-up copy do indeed disappear when reduced is to tear, not cut, the edges of the separate sheets to remove the sharp, thick edge which sometimes appears as a line on the finished copy. Rubber cement the sheets to the original to allow them to be repositioned as needed, since different copy machines offer slightly different reduction sizes.

Copy Machine Selection

Selection of the correct copy machine will make the difference between a card that looks homemade and one that appears truly professional. If the copy machine available in your city has a reduction capability, it probably will produce satisfactory results. The copy machine should be capable of reproducing an original, typewritten copy onto bond paper so that you cannot distinguish the original from the copy without very, very close scrutiny. These new copy machines will also copy onto card stock. Often there is a price reductionfor material that can be left a day or two for staff to process. In this case, be sure the original is assembled so that it is centered correctly for that particular copy machine. Xerox and Kodak both make reduction copiers that work well for greeting card production but one has a 64% reduction whereas the other has a 65% reduction—enough difference so that your cards can become off-center.

The best approach is to prepare an overhead transparency with guidelines on it to indicate center and side spacing (See figure 3). When the first copy is Xeroxed, place this clear sheet over it and adjust the original with its rubber cemented attachments to achieve perfect centering. Leave this plastic guide with the copy machine operator if you select the day or two turnaround so the copies later produced can be measured by your transparency guide. Cards produced in the manner described will be double fold. However, consider the possibility of Xeroxing onto card stock, letter or legal size, then cutting the copy in two to get two greeting cards, each with a single fold.

Coloring

Color can be readily added by copying on colored stock or by several other techniques. To obtain a picture in a single color on a white background, Xerox the picture on colored paper, cut out the picture, and cement it to the Xeroxed white greeting card (See Photograph 3). For multi-colored pictures, use felt tip marking pens (See Photographs 4 and 5). Although there are hundreds of diffrent kinds of marking pens, the "accent" pens used to underline readings in books and day-glo fluorescent pens are especially effective. Basically, there are two types of pens, watercolor and permanent, permanent pens offer a denser, more even color whereas water-based pens do not bleed though the cards, a problem on greeting cards copied on card stock with a single fold.

Fold the greeting cards after they have been colored. Otherwise, it will be necessary to insert a protective sheet to prevent a bleed through when coloring. Copy shops do offer folding service, which will make the first fold only, but which saves time. Envelopes can be obtained at the copy shop or from a printer. (Note: For large production runs of 100 cards or more, school or commercial printers can offer low rates using offset printing.)

Conclusion

Students will find that people seeing their cards for the first time may want to purchase cards for their own use. Cards made using this technique are so colorful, creative, and unique that recipients often keep and display them indefinitely. In addition, designing and creating these cards offers students the opportunity to do something different and exciting in their language classrooms. However, the great strength of this interesting activity lies in the heightened student motivation to learn still more about the target culture and to develop greater skills in using the target language.

Reprinted with permission from *Foreign Language Annals*, No. 6 (1980): 451–454.

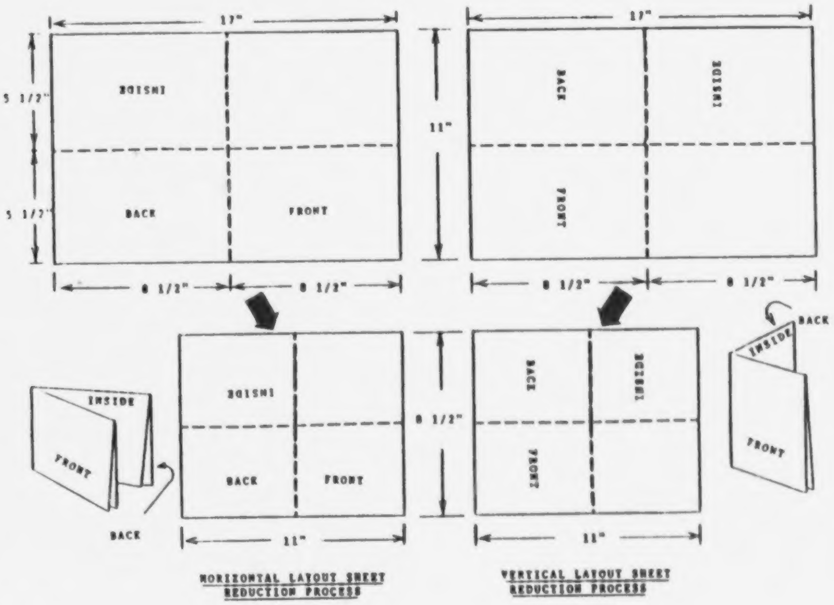

17"
5 1/2"
5 1/2"
INSIDE
BACK
FRONT
8 1/2"
8 1/2"
17"
11"
BACK
INSIDE
FRONT
8 1/2"
8 1/2"
INSIDE
FRONT
BACK
INSIDE
BACK
FRONT
8 1/2"
11"
BACK
INSIDE
FRONT
11"
BACK
INSIDE
FRONT
HORIZONTAL LAYOUT SHEET REDUCTION PROCESS
VERTICAL LAYOUT SHEET REDUCTION PROCESS

FIGURE 2

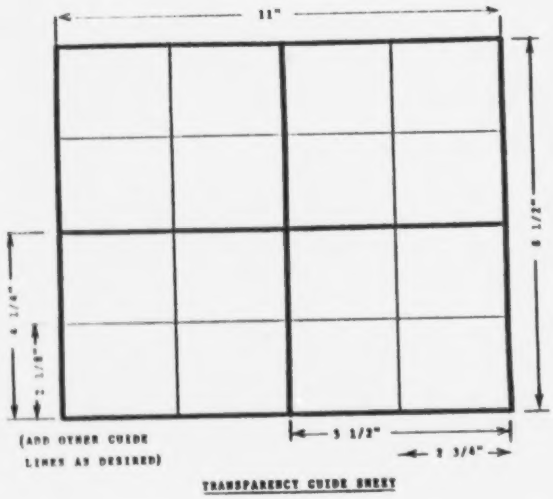

11"
8 1/2"
4 1/4"
2 1/8"
5 1/2"
2 3/4"
(ADD OTHER GUIDE LINES AS DESIRED)
TRANSPARENCY GUIDE SHEET

FIGURE 3

Photo 1. Trace the projected drawing with pencil, followed by black marking pen afterwards.

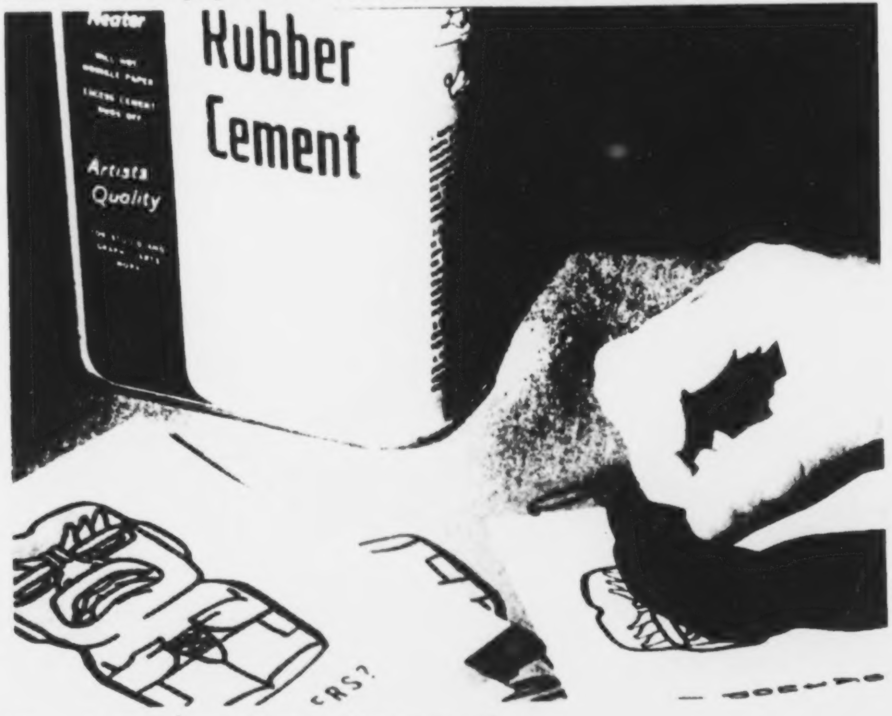

Neater
Rubber
Cement
Artists
Quality

Photo 2. Cement colorful xeroxed image on card.

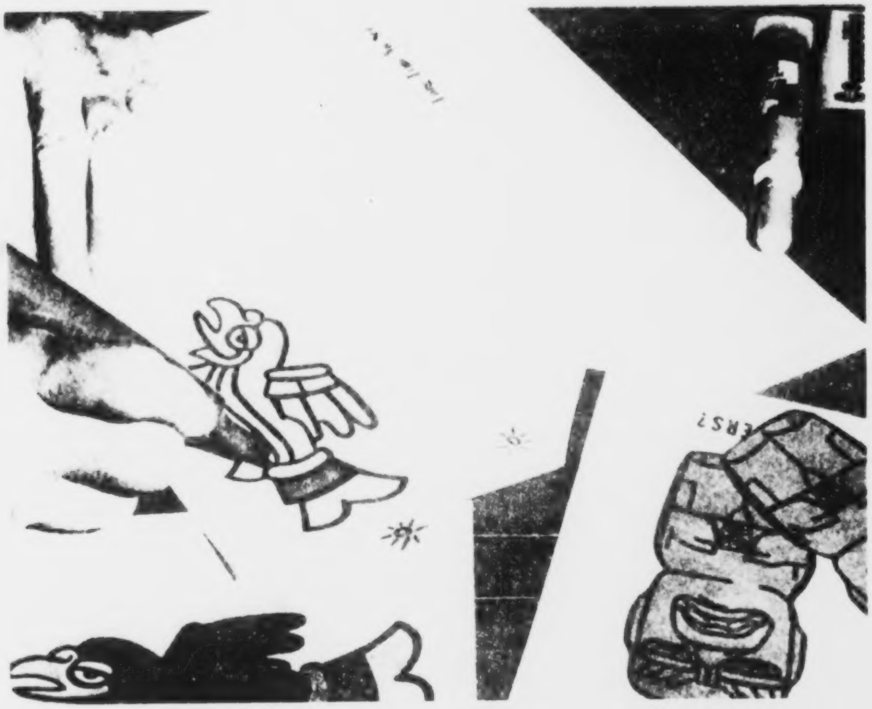


Photo 3. Felt tip pens are used for multicolored designs

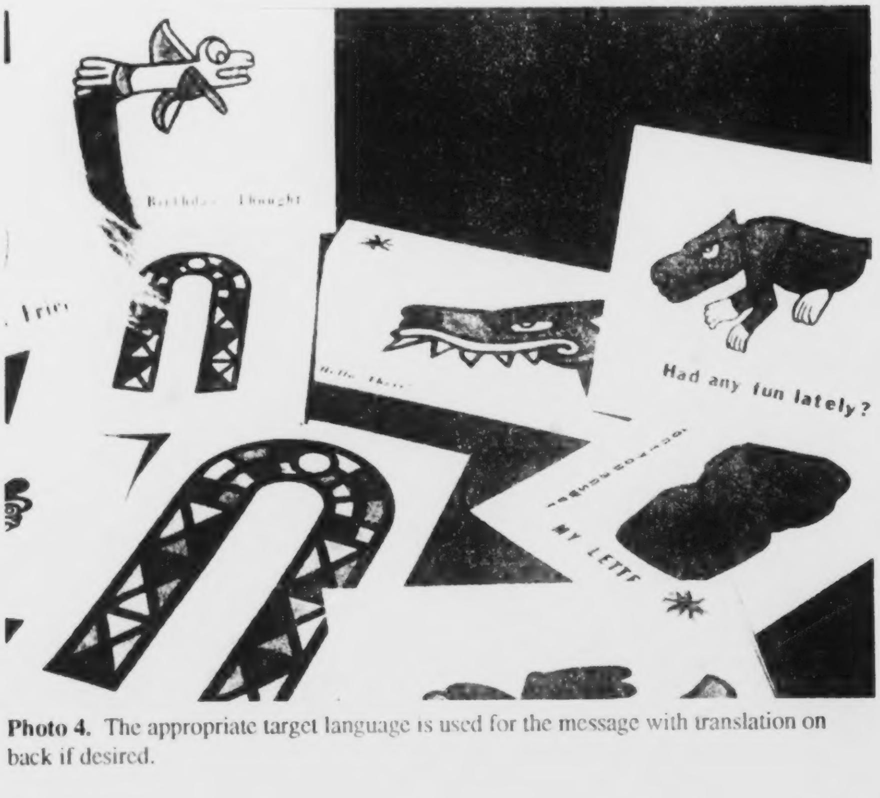

Birthday Thought
Had any fun lately?

Photo 4. The appropriate target language is used for the message with translation on back if desired.

CHAPTER 6. BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON SELECTED SUBJECTS

Ann Hartness, editor

Introduction

The seven bibliographies included in this chapter focus on various aspects of Latin American and Mexican American studies. Three of them—"Latin American Studies," "Latin American Literature," and "Mexican American Studies"—cite selected reference sources, such as basic bibliographies, encyclopedias, specialized dictionaries, handbooks, yearbooks, and other reference materials. Two others are concerned with translations of Latin American literature into English: "Selected Spanish-American Novels in English Translation," and "Selected Brazilian Novels in English Translation." Two topics of considerable popular interest are covered in "Latin American Cinema" and "Mexican American Holidays and Festivities." In addition to bibliographic information, each citation includes an annotation that briefly describes the content and scope of the publication in question.

LATIN AMERICAN STUDIES

Ann Hartness, compiler

SOURCES OF BACKGROUND INFORMATION

GENERAL SOURCES

The Cambridge History of Latin America, edited by Leslie Bethell. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984- .

An authoritative survey of Latin American history from the first contacts between indigenous peoples and Europeans to the present, written by well-known scholars in the field. Bibliographic essays supplement each chapter. Eight volumes are projected. Volumes now available are Vol. 1: *Colonial Latin America*; Vol. 2: *Colonial Latin America*; Vol. 3: *From Independence to c.1870*; Vol. 4: *c. 1870 to 1930*; Vol. 5: *c.1870 to 1930*.

Diccionario enciclopédico Espasa. 8th ed. 12 vols. Madrid: Espasa-Calpe, 1978.

A well-illustrated publication, in an attractive, easy-to-use format, which combines definitions of words and geographical and biographical identifications in one alphabet. Although most entries are brief, there are longer articles covering countries, major cities, important individuals, indigenous groups, and similar topics. It is universal in coverage, including extensive material related to Latin America.

Encyclopedia of Latin America. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974.

Provides information on Latin American history, economics, politics, biography, fine arts, and literature and survey articles for each country.

Hinds, Harold E., and Charles M. Tatum. *Handbook of Latin American Popular Culture*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1985.

Presents an overview of ten areas of popular culture in Spanish and Portuguese Latin America: popular music, popular religion, comics, television, sports, *fotonovelas*, cinema, festivals, single-panel cartoons, and newspapers. Each chapter provides a historical outline, information on research centers and collections, bibliographic essays on key reference works and historical and critical works, ideas on future directions in research, and a bibliography.

Latin American and Caribbean Contemporary Record. New York and London: Holmes & Meier, vol. 1– 1981–1982– .

An annual review of events in the realms of political affairs, defense and security, foreign affairs, social affairs, and economic affairs, for each Latin American and Caribbean country. Other sections, which provide the texts of important documents, statistical data, and general essays on current issues, enhance the usefulness of the work.

South America, Central America, and the Caribbean. 1st ed., 1986– . London: Europa Publications, 1985– .
Surveys the economic and political life of the region and of forty-six countries and territories within it. "Chapters on major countries . . . include a facts-in-brief page . . . historical and economic essays, . . . a statistical survey, directory and bibliography, while smaller countries are covered in summary accounts." Also included are data on the region's major commodities, on regional organizations and research institutes.

AREA HANDBOOK SERIES

The area handbooks are a series of monographs about most countries of the world, including twenty-three countries of Latin America and the Caribbean area. Sponsored by the U. S. government, these publications describe each country's physical environment and its contemporary society in terms of its economy, politics, social conditions, and military situation. They also provide historical background. Each handbook includes an extensive bibliography related to the country it covers, with emphasis on English-language publications. The handbooks are listed here in alphabetical order by country.

Argentina: A Country Study. 3d ed., edited by James D. Rudolph. Washington: Foreign Area Studies, American University. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1986. (Area Handbook Series)

Weil, Thomas E. et al. *Area Handbook for Bolivia.* 2d ed. Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1974.

Brazil: A Country Study. Foreign Area Studies, the American University. 4th ed. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of theArmy. For sale by Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1983. (Area Handbook Series)

Chile: A Country Study, edited by Andrea T. Merrill. Washington: Foreign Area Studies, American University. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1982. (Area Handbook Series)

Blutstein, Howard I. et al. *Area Handbook for Colombia.* 3d ed. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.

Costa Rica: A Country Study. Foreign Area Studies, the American University. 2d ed. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1984. (Area Handbook Series)

Cuba: A Country Study, edited by James D. Rudolph. Washington: Foreign Area Studies, American University. For sale by Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1986. (Area Handbook Series)

Weil, Thomas E. et al. *Area Handbook for the Dominican Republic.* 2d ed. Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1973.

Ecuador: A Country Study, Thomas W. Weil et al. 2d ed. Washington: Foreign Area Studies, American University. For sale by Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1982. (Area Handbook Series)

Blutstein, Howard I. et al. *Area Handbook for El Salvador.* Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1971.

Guatemala: A Country Study. Foreign Area Studies, the American University. 2d ed. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1984. (Area Handbook Series)

Guyana: A Country Study, William B. Mitchell et al. Prepared for Foreign Area Studies, American University by Johnson Research Associates. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1981. (Area Handbook Series)

Weil, Thomas E. et al. *Area Handbook for Haiti.* Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1973.

Honduras: A Country Study, 2d ed.. Prepared for Foreign Area Studies, AmericanUniversity. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1984 (Area Handbook Series).

Kaplan, Irving et al. *Area Handbook for Jamaica*, 1st ed. Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1976.

Mexico: A Country Study, edited by James D. Rudolph, 3d ed. Washington: Foreign Area Studies, American University. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1985. (Area Handbook Series).

Nicaragua: A Country Study, 2d ed.. Foreign Area Studies, the American University. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1982. (Area Handbook Series).

Panama: A Country Study, 3d ed. Foreign Area Studies, the American University. Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1980. (Area Handbook Series).

Weil, Thomas et al. *Area Handbook for Paraguay.* Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1972.

Peru: A Country Study, 3d ed. Foreign Area Studies, the American University, Washington: Headquarters, Dept. of the Army. For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1981. (Area Handbook Series).

Black, Jan Knippers et al. *Area Handbook for Trinidad and Tobago*, 1st ed. Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1976.

Weil, Thomas E. et al. *Area Handbook for Uruguay.* Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1971.

Blutstein, Howard I. *Area Handbook for Venezuela*, 3d ed. Washington: U.S. Govt. Print. Off., 1977.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Bibliographic Guide to Latin American Studies. Boston: G.K. Hall, 1978–

A comprehensive guide to publications about and from all Latin American and Caribbean countries, incorporating the items cataloged during the year for the Benson Latin American Collection at the University of Texas and the Library of Congress. Provides access in one alphabet by author, title, and subject. The *Bibliographic Guide* serves as an annual supplement to the *Catalog of the Latin American Collection of the University of Texas at Austin* (Boston: G.K. Hall, 1969–1977), published in an original set of thirty-nine volumes and four supplements totaling nineteen volumes. The two publications taken together are a major bibliographic tool for Latin American studies.

Bibliograpy of Latin American and Caribbean Bibliographies. Madison: Secretariat, Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials, Memorial Library, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1984–1985— .

This bibliography is the latest in a series of compilations listing bibliographies on Latin American topics that have been published since 1968. The bibliographies, originally compiled by Arthur Gropp, have been continued under the auspices of SALALM and issued annually. The bibliographies for 1980–1982, prepared by Haydée Piedracueva, were not published separately. They appeared in the *Final Report and Working Papers of the Twenty-fifth Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials* (1981) and the *Papers* of the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh annual meetings of SALALM (both published in 1984). The other publications in the series are listed below.

Gropp, Arthur E. *A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1969.

———. *A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies: Supplement.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1971.

———. *A Bibliography of Latin American Biblographies Published in Periodicals.* 2 vols. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1976.

Cordeiro, Daniel Raposo. *A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies: Social Sciences & Humanities Supplementing the Original Works by Arthur E. Gropp.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1979.

Piedracueva, Haydée. *A Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies, 1975–1979: Social Sciences and Humanities.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1982.

Bibliography of Latin American Bibliographies, 1982/1983–1983/1984, Lionel V. Loroña, compiler. 2 vols. Madison, WI: SALALM Secretariat, Memorial Library University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1984.

Handbook of Latin American Studies. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1935– .

This is the most important bibliographical publication in the field of Latin American studies, both in the wide range of topics that it covers and in the length of time that it has been published. It is an annotated subject bibliography of publications in the humanities and social sciences. Besides its extensive coverage of monographic publications, it provides a subject approach to periodical articles about Latin America. Originally published in one annual volume, the proliferation of published material about Latin America has led to the publication of one volume devoted to the social sciences and one devoted to the humanities in alternate years beginning in 1965. A short summary article highlighting important publications precedes the bibliography for each field.

Latin America: A Catalog of Selected Doctoral Dissertation Research. Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International, 1984.
This catalog is the latest in a series published irregularly, which lists dissertations on Latin America and the Caribbean area available through University Microfilms International. Although it is an extensive list, it is not comprehensive, since it excludes dissertations not published by UMI. Other catalogs in the series are listed below.

Latin America: A Catalog of Current Doctoral Dissertation Research. Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International, 1983.

Latin America and the Caribbean II: A Dissertation Bibliography, edited by Marian C. Walters. Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International, 1980?

Latin America and the Caribbean: A Dissertation Bibliography, edited by Carl W. Deal. Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International, 1978.

Latin America: A Catalog of Dissertations. Ann Arbor, MI: Xerox University Microfilms, 1974.

Latin American Newspapers in United States Libraries: A Union List. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1969. (Conference on Latin American History Publications no. 2)
A union list of 5,500 Latin American newspapers owned by seventy libraries in the United States. It includes both current newspapers and those that have ceased publication. The entries for newspapers include date of establishment and frequency of publication when that information is known.

Sable, Martin Howard. *A Guide to Nonprint Materials for Latin American Studies*. Detroit: Blaine Ethridge Books, 1979.
An annotated guide covering nonprint materials related to Latin America as a whole as well as to individual countries. Types of materials included are "(1) films, filmstrips, slides, transparencies, photographs, posters, and videotapes; (2) phonorecords, audiotapes and cassettes; (3) paintings; (4) multimedia sets; (5) realia and games; (6) maps and globes; (7) microforms; (8) a descriptive list of museum collections as these concern Latin American holdings, located in the United States." Author, title, and geographic subject and form indexes enhance this work.

Wilgus, Alva Curtis. *Latin America: A Guide to Illustrations*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1981.
Locates illustrations on Latin American topics, including portraits of individuals, in books, encyclopedias, and periodicals.

———. *Latin America, Spain and Portugal: A Selected and Annotated Bibliographical Guide to Books Published in the United States, 1954-1974*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1977.
Includes a wide range of books and pamphlets such as scholarly monographs, travel accounts, reference books, autobiographies, grammars, cookbooks, fiction, and children's books. The brief annotations are both descriptive and evaluative and often include information on the author. There is an index of authors.

Woods, Richard D. *Reference Materials on Latin America in English: The Humanities*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1980.
An annotated bibliography that covers a wide range of topics related to the humanities. Its thorough subject index makes the variety of materials included easily accessible.

AGRICULTURE

Harris, Susan C., and Nora Rizo P. *The Work of International Agricultural Research Centers in Latin America: A Bibliographic Introduction*. Cali: Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical, 1985.
A partially annotated bibliography of materials related to world hunger and food supply, the debate over the Green Revolution, agricultural development policy, agricultural research policy, appropriate technologies for small farmers, etc.

ART

Handbook of Latin American Art. Manual de arte latinoamericano: A Bibliographic Compilation, general editor, Joyce Bailey. 3 vols. Santa Barbara: ABC-Clio Information Services, 1984–1986.
Vol. 1, Part 1: *General References and Art of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries: North America.* Vol. 1, Part 2: *General References and Art of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries: South America.* Vol. 2: *Art of the Colonial Period.*

CINEMA

Burton, Julianne. *The New Latin American Cinema: An Annotated Bibliography of Sources in English, Spanish, and Portuguese: 1960–1980.* New York: Smyrna Press, 1983.
"This bibliography is designed as a research guide to historical, theoretical, and critical works on Latin American cinema." It cites some 150 articles bearing on these aspects, and also includes a section on Hispanic cinema in the United States.

EDUCATION

Lauerhass, Ludwig, and Vera Lúcia Oliveira de Araújo Haugse. *Education in Latin America: A Bibliography.* Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center, and Boston: G.K. Hall, 1980.
"This bibliography is designed as an introductory reference volume for research on education in Latin America in all its formal and nonformal aspects from its beginning in pre-Columbian times to the mid-1970's in all areas of Latin America and the Caribbean." 9,866 entries.

Poston, Susan L. *Nonformal Education in Latin America: An Annotated Bibliography.* Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center, University of California, Los Angeles, 1976.
Cites publications devoted to agricultural training, basic education, literacy, cultural extension, health, hygiene, nutrition instruction, professional/paraprofessional training, vocational skills training, and other topics, in a country-by-country listing.

ETHNIC GROUPS

Sable, Martin Howard. *Latin American Jewry: A Research Guide.* Cincinnati: Hebrew Union College Press, 1978.
Contains 4,423 unannotated citations to "scholarly and popular materials covering almost all aspects of the impact of Jewry in and on Latin America and its individual nations, regions and places from 1492 to 1974." Most of the materials cited are in English, Hebrew, Portuguese, Spanish, or Yiddish, although other European languages are included. Arranged by broad topics, with author and subject indexes. In addition to the bibliography, a "Directory of Periodical Titles" lists 435 items, and a "Directory of General Associations and Organizations" lists 518 organizations and institutions related to Judaism in Latin America.

Szwed, John F., and Roger D. Abrahams. *Afro American Folk Culture: An Annotated Bibiography of Materials from North, Central, and South America, and the West Indies.* 2 vols. Philadelphia: Institute for the Study of Human Issues, 1978.
This bibliography was compiled to draw attention to the "huge body of material [that] exists on Afro-American traditions and cultural expressions." Volume 2, *The West Indies, Central, and South America*, contains about 3,000 partially annotated citations.

HISTORY

Historical Periodicals Directory. Santa Barbara: ABC-Clio, 1981- . Volume 4: *Latin America and the West Indies* (1985).
A list of historical periodicals of thirty-two countries of Latin America and the Caribbean area. For purposes of this directory, history is broadly defined to include periodicals related to political, social, cultural, economic, religious, and intellectual history. Covers current publications and those that have ceased publication since 1960.

Werlich, David P. *Research Tools for Latin American Historians: A Select, Annotated Bibliography.* New York: Garland, 1980.
"A classified, annotated bibliography of almost 1400 reference works, compendiums of source materials and periodicals useful to Latin American historians."

HUMAN RIGHTS

Human Rights in Latin America, 1964–1980: A Selective Annotated Bibliography, compiled and edited by the Hispanic Division. Washington: Library of Congress, 1983.
An excellent bibliography covering human rights

as a general concept and in Latin America on a country-by-country basis. Although the human rights situations in individual countries change over time, this bibliography, covering the recent past, provides good background materials for the study of today's reality.

LAW

Villalón-Galdames, Alberto. *Bibliografía jurídica de América Latina, 1810–1965*. Santiago: Editorial Jurídica de Chile, 1969– .
Extensive bibliographic coverage of the legal literature of Latin America on a country-by-country basis. Vol. 1: *Argentina, Bolivia* (1969). Vol. 2: *Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba* (1984). Volume 2 has the title *Bibliografía jurídica: Latin American Legal Bibliography*. Additional volumes are planned.

LITERATURE

Foster, David William, and Virginia Ramos Foster. *Manual of Hispanic Bibliography*. 2d. ed. New York: Garland, 1977.
A "comprehensive bibliographical guide to primary and important secondary sources of investigation" for students of Spanish and and Spanish-American literature. This manual is essentially a bibliography of bibliographies relevant to Hispanic literature. Coverage for Spanish America is by country. Excludes works focusing on Brazil and Spanish-American Indian languages.

Rela, Walter. *Spanish American Literature: A Selected Bibliography. Literatura hispanoamericana: bibliografía selecta, 1970–1980*. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1982.
Continues *Guía bibliográfica de la literatura hispanoamericana, 1900–1970*

MEDICINE

Harrison, Ira E., and Sheila Cosminsky. *Traditional Medicine: Implications for Ethnomedicine, Ethnopharmacology, Maternal and Child Health, Mental Health, and Public Health. An Annotated Bibliography of Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean*. 2 vols. New York: Garland, 1976–1984.
Covers 1,135 books, journal and newspaper articles, proceedings of conferences and other items, published 1950–1975. Although it is not indicated in the title, Mexican Americans are one of the groups included in this bibliography. Author and title indexes.

MUSIC

Chase, Gilbert. *A Guide to the Music of Latin America*. 2d. ed. Washington: Pan American Union, 1962.
An annotated bibliography of about 2,700 publications on Latin American music from the pre-Columbian period to 1960. Includes monographs and periodical articles on the music of Latin America, the Caribbean area, and Hispanic elements in the music of the United States. The brief introduction is a historical synthesis and also provides a short introduction to each area under study. Though now out-of-date, this guide is a valuable reference source for the areas and topics under consideration.

PHILOSOPHY

Fornet-Betancourt, Raul. *Kommentierte Bibliographie zur Philosophie in Lateinamerika*. Frankfurt am Main: 1985. 156 pp.
Cites books and journals about philosophy in Latin America. Annotated.

Redmond, Walter Bernard. *Bibliography of the Philosophy in the Iberian Colonies of America*. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1972.
This work "is intended to be an introduction to Latin American colonial philosophy, summarizing the research already done in the field and giving some idea of the rich primary source material available for study." Includes 1,153 manuscripts and printed works, an appendix of some colonial philosophical works that have been lost, and a bibliography of secondary literature.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

A Guide to Official Gazettes and Their Contents. Rev. ed., compiled by John E. Roberts. Washington: Law Library, Library of Congress, 1985.
A basic guide intended to provide a "reference tool to assist researchers unfamiliar with the legal publications of foreign jurisdictions in identifying and using official gazettes." It is worldwide in scope and includes about forty Latin American and Caribbean countries.

Latin American Politics: A Historical Bibliography. Santa Barbara: ABC-Clio, 1984.
Abstracts 3,006 journal articles that were published 1973–1982 dealing with modern Latin

American politics since 1914. Covers 2,000 periodicals published in ninety countries.

SOCIAL SCIENCES

Chilcote, Ronald H. *Revolution and Structural Change in Latin America: A Bibliography on Ideology, Development, and the Radical Left (1930-1965).* 2 vols. Stanford, CA: Hoover Institution on War, Revolution and Peace, 1970.
This work was compiled in an effort to fulfill the need "for study of the phenomenon of revolution and change in Latin America" and to aid scholarly research on the Latin American Left. About 10,000 unannotated citations are arranged alphabetically by country (Vol. 1: *Argentina-Colombia*, Vol. 2: *Cuba-Venezuela*). The entries for each country are prefaced by introductions on the history of the Left there. Materials cited are not limited to the social sciences, but include literary works.

Comitas, Lambros. *Complete Caribbeana, 1900–1975: A Bibliographic Guide to the Scholarly Literature.* 4 vols. Millwood, NY: Drau Thomson, 1977.
A comprehensive bibliography of 17,000 references to books, articles, and reports about the non-Hispanic Caribbean, excluding Haiti. The nine sections are organized from an anthropological perspective and cover the people, social and political activities, and physical setting.

Delorme, Robert L. *Latin America, 1979–1983: A Social Science Bibliography.* Santa Barbara: ABC-Clio Information Services, 1984.
An unannotated bibliography of 3,728 entries covering "scholarly books and journal articles of interest to social scientists concerned with the study of Latin America." The majority of works cited are in English, but some in Spanish and Portuguese are also included. Updates an earlier publication by the same author, *Latin America: Social Science Information Sources, 1967-1979* (Santa Barbara: 1981), which contains 5,602 entries.

Guadarrama, María del Rocío, and Alfonso López. *Bibliografía de América Latina: economía, política, sociología.* Mexico City: Facultad de Ciencias Políticas y Sociales, 1976.
An unannotated bibliography arranged by country. Includes books, theses, pamphlets, reports, speeches related to economic, political and social conditions.

Sable, Martin Howard. *Latin American Urbanization: A Guide to the Literature, Organizations and Personnel.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1971.
An unannotated bibliography of 6,900 publications related to urbanization, defined in broad terms. Besides the obvious subjects such as planning, demography, industrialization, and rural-urban migration, this work encompasses such topics as the city in Latin American literature, mental hygiene, urban education, and religion in urban settings. A directory section provides information on research centers and working organizations concerned with urbanization, and specialists in the field.

STATISTICS

Goyer, Doreen S. *The International Population Census Bibliography: Revision and Update, 1945–1977.* New York: Academic Press, 1980.
A bibliography of "all known, bona fide, national, population censuses," published over three decades for all nations and some territories, including the Latin American countries. Entries for each country also include the name of its statistical agency and the distributor of its census materials.

Harvey, Joan M. *Statistics America: Sources for Social, Economic and Market Research.* 2 ed. Beckenham, England: CBD Research; Detroit: Gale Research Corp., 1980.
Lists sources for covering many subjects of statistics under each country of North America, South America, Central America, and the Caribbean.

WOMEN

Byrne, Pamela R., and Suzanne R. Ontiveros. *Women in the Third World: A Historical Bibliography.* Santa Barbara, ABC-Clio, 1986.
Abstracts of articles that were published between 1970 and 1985 all over the world. About half of the listings (271) refer to articles about women of Latin America and the Caribbean area.

Knaster, Meri. *Women in Spanish America: An Annotated Bibliography from Pre-Conquest to Contemporary Times.* Boston: G. K. Hall, 1977.
Takes a topical approach to many aspects of women's lives in the Spanish-speaking countries of Latin America and the Caribbean area. Economic life, education, psychology, marriage and

the family, the arts, law, history, and biography are some of the subjects included. 2,534 entries cite books, chapters of books, pamphlets, and periodical articles, in English or Spanish, published from the seventeenth century through 1974. There are separate lists of unpublished doctoral dissertations and master's theses. Good descriptive annotations enhance the value of this work, as do author and title indexes.

Saulniers, Suzanne Smith, and Cathy A. Rakowski. *Women in the Development Process: a Select Bibliography on Women in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America*. Austin: Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas at Austin, 1977.
"The purpose of this bibliography is to draw together books, articles, conference papers, pamphlets, and unpublished documents written between 1900 and 1976 on women in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America." Its 2,844 unannotated citations focus on "references that can be used to evaluate women's actual and potential roles in institutional settings and in societal development." It is arranged by broad subject with geographical subdivisions.

INDEXES

Covington, Paula. *Indexed Journals: A Guide to Latin American Serials*. Madison, WI: Secretariat, Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials, 1983.
Describes and evaluates principal indexes and abstracts that cover journals published in or relating to Latin America, and lists 1,500 of those journals, identifying the indexes in which each is covered.

Guía a las reseñas de libros de y sobre Hispanoamérica. A Guide to Reviews of Books From and About Hispanic America. New York: Garland, 1965- .
This guide to book reviews began in 1965 as a mimeographed index to book reviews published in 248 periodicals received in the University of Puerto Rico library, covering the years 1961–1965. In 1972 annual publication began with expanded coverage, but with some time lag. Brief excerpts of the reviews in their original languages are an important feature.

HAPI: Hispanic American Periodicals Index. Los Angeles: Latin American Center, University of California, 1974- .
An annual author and subject index to more than 200 periodicals in English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and German published in or about Latin America. Citations for book reviews are a useful feature.

Indice general de publicaciones periódicas latinoamericanas: humanidades y ciencias sociales. Index to Latin American Periodicals: Humanities and Social Sciences. Boston: G. K. Hall, vol. 1–10, 1961–June 1970.
An annual subject index to articles in 225 Latin American periodicals. Although publication has ceased, it is useful for the time period that it covers.

Pan American Union. Columbus Memorial Library. *Index to Latin American Periodical Literature, 1929–1960*. 8 vols. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1962.
An author and subject index to periodical literature about Latin America. Emphasizes economic, political, social, and cultural topics, but other subjects such as agriculture are included to a lesser degree. This index and its two supplements supply coverage through 1970.

U.S. Library of Congress. Hispanic Law Division. *Index to Latin American Legislation, 1950–1960*. 2 vols. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1961.
A subject index to national legislation appearing in official sources of the Latin American countries. Three supplements bringing coverage up to 1975 have been issued.

FACT SOURCES

GENERAL WORKS

Directorio latinoamericano, socio-económico, político, académico. Latin American Directory. Quito: EDIEC Latina, 1985/1986- .
Contains 15,000 names of institutions, organizations, and people in government, business, mass media, labor, politics, the academic world, and other types of activity. Includes forty-nine countries and territories in Latin America and the Caribbean area. The publisher expects to issue updated editions.

Directory of Inter-American and Other Associations in the Americas. Washington: General Secretariat, Organization of American States, 1986.
A directory covering cultural and informational

associations, professional and semiprofessional organizations, and Latin American studies programs in the United States. Includes organizations interested in Latin America and some devoted to Hispanics in the United States.

Fenton, Thomas P., and Mary J. Heffron. *Latin America and Caribbean: A Directory of Resources.* Maryknoll, NY: Orbis Books; London: Zed Books, 1986.
This directory, "an admittedly biased listing of sources," is intended to balance reporting on Latin American issues in the mass media. It provides information on organizations interested in those issues and bibliographic data on publications and audiovisuals presenting alternative views.

Hilton, Ronald. *Handbook of Hispanic Source Materials and Research Organizations in the United States.* 2d. ed. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1956.
A basic guide to libraries, museums, art galleries, and other institutions with Hispanic materials, "Hispanic" being defined as Spain, Portugal, Latin America and Florida, Texas, the Southwest, and California until their annexation by the United States. Bibliographies of Spanish missions are included under appropriate states. Although this work is not up-to-date, lacking coverage of more recent acquisitions of the institutions it includes, it is still a useful tool.

ISLA: Information Services on Latin America. Berkeley.
A compilation of clippings of articles about Latin America appearing in nine major U.S. newspapers, issued monthly.

Latin American Weekly Report. London: Latin American Newsletters, Ltd. Nov. 2, 1979- .
News and analysis of economic and political developments in the Latin American countries, although it does not cover each country each week. The same publisher also issues several regional reports: *Caribbean Report; Mexico & Central America Report; Southern Cone Report; Brazil Report; Andean Group Report.*

Meo-Zilio, Giovanni, and Silvia Mejía. *Diccionario de gestos: España e Hispanoamérica.* 2 vols. Bogotá: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, 1983.
A well-illustrated dictionary of gestures arranged by the concepts that they express. Entries include countries in which each gesture is used and the term used to describe it.

Mesa-Lago, Carmelo. *Latin American Studies in Asia.* Pittsburgh: Center for Latin American Studies, 1983.
Information on "multidisciplinary area study programs . . . found at universities and research institutions" in Japan, the People's Republic of China, and India.

Smith, Margo. *Directory of Latin American Studies Programs and Faculty in the United States.* Gainesville, FL: Consortium of Latin American Studies Programs, 1975.
The major part of this work lists academic institutions sponsoring Latin American studies programs, states the degrees that they offer, and lists the faculty members and their specialties.

Spiegel der Lateinamerikanischen Presse. Boletín de prensa latinoamericana. Hamburg: Institut fur Iberoamerika-Kunde, Dokumentations-Leitselle Lateinamerika, 1984–.
A monthly clipping service providing news and commentary from the Latin American press. Focuses on political and socioeconomic news and issues from a national or regional perspective. Arranged by country.

The Statesman's Yearbook. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1st ed.- ,1864- .
An annual publication providing basic facts about countries through statistics, lists, and summaries. Includes such topics as history, area and population, climate, constitution and government (including names of chief executives and cabinet ministers), defense, international relations, energy and natural resources, industry, trade, communications, justice, religion, education, health, and diplomatic representatives. Also supplies information on international organizations, including the Organization of American States, the Caribbean Community, and Latin American economic groupings.

U.S. Foreign Broadcast Information Service. *Daily Report: Latin America.* Washington.
"The Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS), a U.S. government agency, monitors foreign broadcasts, news agency transmissions, newspapers, periodicals, and government statements." Translations of this material are published in this daily publication. The *Index to the Foreign Broadcast Information Service Daily Reports: Latin*

America provides access from several different perspectives.

Acronyms

Instituto Brasileiro de Informação em Ciência e Tecnologia. *Siglas de entidades brasileiras*. Versão preliminar. Rio de Janeiro: 1979.
This most recent directory of Brazilian acronyms identifies 5,436 entities, and should be used in conjunction with *Siglas brasileiras* (2d ed. Rio de Janeiro: Instituto Brasileiro de Bibliografia e Documentação, 1975), which includes 17,000 acronyms.

United Nations. Economic Commisssion for Latin America. *Lista de siglas latinoamericanas. Latin American Initialisms and Acronyms with English Translations*. Santiago de Chile: 1970. Reprint. Detroit: Blaine Ethridge Books, 1974.
Identifies acronyms for a wide variety of Latin American institutions, both public and private.

United States. Joint Publications Research Service. *Reference Aid: Abbreviations in the Latin American Press*. Rev. ed. Arlington, VA: 1977.
English equivalents of abbreviations and acronyms used in the Latin American press. Identifies the country of origin.

ART

Enciclopedia del arte en América. 5 vols. Buenos Aires: Bibliográfica OMEBA, 1969.
This work provides an introduction to the history of art (painting, sculpture, and architecture) for each country of the Americas in its first two volumes. A name index in each volume gives access to individuals mentioned in the text. The last three volumes constitute a biographical dictionary of North and South American artists. All of the volumes include illustrations.

BIOGRAPHY

National Directory of Latin Americanists, compiled in the Hispanic Division of the Library of Congress. 3d ed. Washington: Library of Congress, 1985.
Provides "biographic and bibliographic data for 4,915 individuals with specialized knowledge of Latin America." Includes an index of persons by subject specialty.

Suárez, Ida L., and Esther Sánchez M. *Latinoamericanistas en Europa: registro bio-bibliográfico*. Amsterdam: Centro de Estudios y Documentación Latinoamericanos, 1981.
Presents bio-bibliographical information about 518 European and British Latin Americanists. The who's who–type entries include names, place and date of birth, discipline, academic degrees, present and previous positions, specific field of interest, publications, and address. There are geographic and subject indexes for the individuals covered in the work.

Cinema

Les cinémas de l'Amérique latine pays par pays: l'histoire, l'économie, les structures, les auteurs, les oeuvres. Paris: Lherminier, 1981.
Coverage for each country varies slightly but all include an essay on the history of its cinema, liberally interspersed with illustrations, a chronology, and biographical and artistic data about prominent cineasts. Other types of information that may be included are a list of cineasts in exile, when relevant, the country as a theme in the cinema of other countries, production statistics, and other data.

BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

Houaiss, Antonio, ed. *The New Appleton Dictionary of the English and Portuguese Languages*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967

Velázquez de la Cadena, Mariano Edward Gray, and Juan L. Iribas. *New Revised Velázquez Spanish and English Dictionary*. Piscataway, NJ: New Century Publishers, 1985.

ECONOMICS/BUSINESS

Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries. New York: Uniworld Business Publications, 1st ed.- , 1955/56.
The 11th edition (1987) of the directory covers 3,200 firms in its three volumes. Volume 1 lists the firms in alphabetical order, followed by each firm's U.S. address, names of its chief executive officer, and the officer in charge of overseas operations, its principal products or services, and the foreign countries where it operates. Volumes 2 and 3 present a geographical approach—under each country are listed American firms operating there, with the addresses of their subsidiaries or branches and of their home offices in the United States, as

well as brief descriptions of their products or services.

Dun's Latin America's Top 25,000. Parsippany, NJ: Dun's Marketing Services, 1985- .
"A marketing directory presenting information on approximately 25,000 leading enterprises in 35 countries throughout Latin America"—Introduction.

Morais, Clodomir Santos de. *Diccionario de reforma agraria: Latinoamérica*, 2d ed. San José: Editorial Universitaria Centroamericana, 1983.
A dictionary defining terms used in Latin American countries, related to all aspects of agrarian reform. Covers agricultural, legal, social, and economic aspects as well as terms associated with agricultural implements, rural workers' associations, weights and measures, soil and water, forms of tenancy, types of agricultural workers, etc.

EDUCATION

Catálogo de cursos internacionales. Buenos Aires: Fundación José María Aragón, 1980/81- .
A catalog of special and vocational courses offered in many fields in Latin America and elsewhere. Information about each course includes the sponsoring organization, location, language in which it is taught, beginning date and length of the course, requirements, and financial aid available.

The World of Learning. London: Europa Publications, 1st- , 1947- .
An annual directory of learned societies, research institutes, libraries, archives, museums, art galleries, universities, technical colleges, and schools of art and music throughout the world, including twenty-six Latin American and Caribbean countries.

GEOGRAPHY

America in Maps Dating from 1500 to 1856. Compiled and edited by Egon Klemp. New York: Holmes & Meier, 1976.
"This facsimile volume contains a representative selection of maps produced from the time of Columbus' discovery of America until the middle of the nineteenth century." Each of the 76 maps is accompanied by a commentary and by information on the cartographer. There is an index of persons.

Bartholomew (John) and Son, Ltd. *The Times Atlas of the World*. Comprehensive edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.
Includes detailed physical-political maps of the Americas. The index-gazetteer at the back of the volume lists all place names indicated in the maps as well as their latitude and longitude and their locations in the map section of the book.

Larsgaard, Mary Lynette. *Topographic Mapping of the Americas, Australia and New Zealand*. Littleton, CO: Libraries Unlimited, 1984.
Basic background information on maps and an extensive bibliography complement the main body of this work, which summarizes past and present topographic mapping activity in each of the countries covered.

GOVERNMENT

Medina, Rubens, and Cecilia Medina Quiroga. *Nomenclature and Hierarchy: Basic Latin American Legal Sources*. Washington: Library of Congress, 1979.
Covers the statutory sources—constitutions, laws, decrees, treaties, and other instruments—of twenty Latin American countries. Defines the meanings of the terms, which vary from country to country, and describes the hierarchy of legal importance and the current status of the statutory sources mentioned above.

HEALTH

Latin American Health Handbook, 1984. White Plains, NY: Robert S. First, 1984.
A compilation of statistics and other information related to health for twenty-five Latin American and Caribbean countries. Although depth of coverage varies for each country, some of the topics often included are the social insurance system, government agencies dealing with health matters, hospitals, medical personnel, health care delivery, communicable diseases, mortality, environmental health, and sources of further information.

HISTORY

Lombardi, Cathryn L.; John V. Lombardi; and K. Lynn Stoner *Latin American History: A Teaching Atlas*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press for The Conference on Latin American History, 1983.
A series of maps providing visual information about Latin America's physical environment, and history (colonial and modern periods). The section

on the colonial period focuses on the discovery and conquest, colonial governments, trade, resources, and competition, and the independence movement, while the section on the modern period covers boundaries, international relations, population, and Latin American economies and society. An important source which locates and illustrates many important events and developments in Latin American history.

Nauman, Ann K. *A Handbook of Latin American and Caribbean National Archives. Guía de los archivos nacionales de América Latina y el Caribe.* Detroit: Blaine Ethridge Books, 1983.
Provides basic information on the national archives of twenty-six Latin American and Caribbean countries in English and Spanish.

INDIANS

Handbook of Middle American Indians. 16 vols. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1964-1976.
Long articles cover a wide variety of topics about Indians from northern Mexico to Panama. Archaeology, ethnohistory, natural history, and physical and social anthropology are the broad areas included in volumes 1-11. A detailed subject index in each volume provides access to specific topics. Volumes 12–15 are a guide to ethnohistorical sources for the geographical area covered by the first eleven volumes. Although each volume has its own bibliography, volume 16 is a bibliography in one alphabet of all the works cited in the first eleven volumes. It also includes a guide to the location of artifacts cited in the same volumes. *Supplement to the Handbook of Middle American Indians* has been issued periodically since 1981: Vol. 1: *Archaeology* (1981); Vol. 2: *Linguistics* (1984); Vol. 3: *Literature* (1985); Vol. 4: *Ethnohistory* (1986).

Steward, Julian Haynes. *Handbook of South American Indians.* 7 vols. New York: Cooper Square Publishers, 1963.
Volumes 1–4 of this guide deal with specific South American Indian tribes, presenting geographical, environmental, historical, and cultural data as well as the principal sources of anthropological data for each one. Each volume includes a bibliography. Volume 5 is concerned with comparative ethnology of South American Indians, and cross-cultural surveys of various aspects of Indian life constitute its bulk. Volume 6 covers physical anthropology, linguistics, and cultural geography of the South American Indians. Volume 7 is a detailed subject index to the set.

INFORMATION SCIENCE

Latin American Data Catalog. Williamston, Mass.: Roper Research Center, 1976.
"An annotated inventory of machine-readable data from Latin America located in the United States." Emphasizes the social sciences, and includes census data. Presents information on the holdings of four major data archives: Roper Public Opinion Research Center, Williams College; International Data Library and Reference Service, University of California (Berkeley); Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan; and Latin American Data Bank, University of Florida. Also cites data sets held by individual researchers at various academic locations in the United States. Arranged by country.

Tyler, William G., ed. *Data Banks and Archives for Social Science Research on Latin America.* Gainesville, FL: Latin American Studies Association, 1975. (Consortium of Latin American Studies Programs Publication no. 6)
Describes some of the machine-readable data archives "which possess information dealing with Latin America and which are of interest to social scientists doing research in or on Latin America." Consists of articles contributed by representatives of the major data banks with Latin American holdings.

JOURNALISM

Feuereisen, Fritz, and Ernst Schmacke. *Die Presse in Lateinamerika: Ein Handbuch fur Wirstschaft und Werbung. The Press in Latin America: A Handbook for Economics and Advertising.* 2d ed. Munich: Verlag Dokumentation, Pullach, 1973.
This handbook covers major newspapers in Latin America and the Caribbean area, and is intended for use by potential advertisers, although much of the data would be useful to anyone needing information about the newspapers. It is arranged alphabetically by country, and the information, presented in tabular form, includes title, political orientation, address, circulation, language, frequency of issue, type of reader, size, printing method, price of advertising, and closing date before publication. There is a geographical and title index.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Grimes, Barbara F. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. 10th ed. Dallas: Wycliffe Bible Translators, 1984.
Identifies the languages in use in each country of the world, including those of Latin America. Information about each language includes name and alternate names, approximate number of speakers, location, dialects, linguistic affiliation, bilingualism of its speakers, and other data. Includes a language map for each country of the Americas, pinpointing the location where each language is spoken. A separately published index lists the "more than 26,000 names that are associated with the 5,445 languages listed in the *Ethnologue*..... It identifies all the language names and their alternates, and all the dialect names and their alternates."

International Center for Research on Bilingualism. *Linguistic Composition of the Nations of the World. Composition linguistique des nations du monde*. Vol. 3: *Central and South America*. Québec: Les Presses de l'Université Laval, 1979.
Information on languages spoken in about fifty countries of Latin America and the Caribbean area. Data provided include name of language, number of speakers, and source of the information, as well as explanatory notes.

MILITARY AFFAIRS

L'année stratégique: forces armées dans le monde (effectifs, armements); analyses géopolitiques; les nouvelles données stratégiques. Paris: Editions Maritimes et d'Outre-Mer, 1985.
The forty pages devoted to Latin America in this yearbook covering the world summarize military events and developments in the region and provide country-by-country statistical data about the armed forces.

English, Adrian J. *Armed Forces of Latin America: Their Histories, Development, Present Strength and Military Potential*. London: Jane's Publishing Co., 1984.
A country-by-country survey of the history, development, and present state of the armed forces in Latin America, with details about size and equipment and many illustrations. Also includes information on Latin American defense expenditure as a percentage of the GNP and US military aid to Latin American countries. Glossary of military terms in English, Spanish and Portuguese.

MUSIC

Béhague, Gerard. *Music in Latin America: An Introduction*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979.
Although this survey of Latin American art music cannot be strictly termed a reference book, it lends itself well to reference use because of its detailed table of contents and extensive index. Ten chapters cover the subject from colonial times to the present, and six of the ten deal with the twentieth century, providing a welcome source of information for this period. Within the twentieth century the emphasis is on the period since 1950, since there is a general lack of material for that time. Composers, compositions, musical organizations, performing groups, publications, and musical forms peculiar to specific countries provide details that flesh out this broad survey.

NATURAL HISTORY

Cabrera, Angel, and José Yepes. *Mamíferos sudamericanos*. 2d ed. 2 vols. Buenos Aires: Ediar, 1960.
This publication covers the mammals of all South America, with an essay on the zoogeography of South America preceding the main body of the work. It is divided into mammal families and then specific animals listed under their common names, with their scientific names following. Information for each species includes a general physical description, its habits, diet, and reproduction. Detailed physical descriptions and geographical distribution are given for each animal. Illustrated with many color plates.

Dunning, John Stewart. *South American Land Birds: A Photographic Aid to Identification*. Newtown Square, PA: Harrowood Books, 1982.
A work "designed to help the beginning bird watcher identify the land birds of South America." Includes descriptions, colored photographs, and range maps.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

Degenhardt, Henry W. *Political Dissent: An International Guide to Dissident, Extra-Parliamentary, Guerrilla and Illegal Political Movements*. Detroit: Gale Research Company, 1983.
A section on Latin America provides country-by-country coverage of dissident movements: dates

founded, leaders, activities, etc. Focus is on the period 1970–1980, although there is some earlier and later coverage.

Organization of American States. *Directory of Delegations.* Washington: General Secretariat of the Organization of American States.
Lists the titles, names and addresses of persons assigned to the permanent missions to the OAS, for each member country. A separate list gives the names of the chief executive, the preceding chief executive, the cabinet ministers, and the ambassadors to the OAS, the United Nations, and the U.S. Much of the same information was formerly provided in *Chiefs of State and Cabinet Ministers of the American Republics* (also issued by the OAS), which is no longer published.

Rossi, Ernest E., and Jack C. Plano *The Latin American Political Dictionary.* Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-Clio, 1980.
A dictionary of the "concepts, events, institutions, strategies and theories that are most applicable to achieving a basic understanding of the Latin American region" intended primarily to introduce Latin American politics to students. Each entry includes a current definition of the term and a paragraph focusing on its significance in historical terms and on the contemporary scene. Although this work should be a useful teaching aid, it will be a disappointment to those who open it hoping to identify political figures, parties, minor political movements, and the like.

Ruddle, Kenneth, and Philip Gillette, eds. *Latin American Polititcal Statistics.* Los Angeles: Latin American Center, University of California, 1972.
Presents political information on the twenty-four independent Latin American countries, 1940–1972, through summaries and tables. Covers officials of the executive branches, significant dates, election results and voter registration. There is an index of political leaders and institutions.

Who Is Who in Government and Politics in Latin America. Quién es quién en la política y los gobiernos de América Latina. New York: Decade Media Books, 1984.
Biographical data for more than one thousand individuals prominent in government and politics at the national and regional levels, from twenty-three countries in Latin America and the Caribbean.

RELIGION

New Catholic Encyclopedia. 16 vols. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967–1974.
This encyclopedia, covering Catholicism in general, includes background articles on various aspects of the church in Latin America and identifies past and contemporary individuals associated with it. The scholarly, signed articles include bibliographies.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Directorio interamericano de instituciones de investigación y desarrollo. Washington: Organización de los Estados Americanos, Programa Regional de Desarrollo Científico y Tecnológico, 1979- .
The first edition of this directory includes information on institutions engaged in scientific and technical research and development in Argentina, Barbados, Colombia, Chile, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

Latin American Newsletters. *Science and Technology in Latin America.* London: Longman, 1983. (Longman Guide to World Science and Technology.)
A country-by-country guide to scientific and technical institutions in Latin America intended for researchers seeking points of reference and contact there. Also includes background information on the organization, policies, and financing of science and technology in each country.

Mari, M., and J. Flores. *Directorio de centros de estudios latinoamericanos de la ciencia y la tecnología.* Washington: Organización de los Estados Americanos, Departamento de Asuntos Científicos y Tecnológicos, División de Política Científica y Tecnológica, 1984.
A directory of Latin American agencies and institutions concerned with science and technology policy, listed country-by-country.

STATISTICS

Anuario estadístico de América Latina. Statistical Yearbook for Latin America. New York: United Nations, Economic Commission for Latin America, 1973- .

This bilingual yearbook in Spanish and English presents statistical series for Latin America as a whole; for subregions comprising the countries making up the Latin American Free Trade Association, the Andean Group, the Central American Common Market, and the Caribbean Free Trade Association; and for individual countries. Statistics for each category cover all or most of the following topics: population, national accounts, agriculture, industry, transportation, foreign trade, prices, balance of payments, and social statistics. Several pages of the introduction are devoted to sources of the statistics. Although this is a yearbook, publication lags two or three years behind the current date. It is, nevertheless, a useful source for a variety of statistical data not easily found elsewhere and is one of the major sources of Latin American statistics.

Statistical Abstract of Latin America. Los Angeles: Center of Latin American Studies, University of California, 1st- , 1955- .
An annual publication summarizing demographic, social, economic, and political statistics for the Latin American countries. A bibliography lists the sources of data presented including statistical publications of international, governmental, and private agencies.

TRAVEL

South American Handbook. Bath, England: Trade & Travel Publications, 1st- , 1924- .
This standard guidebook covering all of Latin America and the Caribbean islands is updated annually. The first part provides general information about such topics as health in the tropics and transportation in Latin America. The second part, devoted to individual countries, provides detailed information in compact form. It is especially notable for its coverage of the sightseeing attractions and accommodations for tourists in many of the smaller cities, as well as the extensive information it gives about capitals and other large cities. Some of the other topics covered are geography, history, communications, and local festivals, and it includes regional maps and maps of the central areas of cities. An index to place names supplements the table of contents to facilitate access to the substantial content of this work. It would be difficult to find a more useful or up-to-date guide with brief but helpful information for the traveler in Latin America.

Latin American Literature

Sonia Merubia, compiler

This guide serves as a point of departure for the study of Latin American literature. An effort has been made to emphasize current materials as well as those publications that have stood the test of time. Some form of access to the literatures of practically all Spanish-, Portuguese-, English-, and French-speaking countries of Latin America is provided in this representative guide.

Sources of Background Information

The publications listed here are good beginning points for research. They provide an overview of Latin American literature, basic factual information, and specific terms to use in searching the literature, as well as references to other important works in the field.

Alegría, Fernando. *Nueva historia de la novela hispanoamericana*. Hanover, NH: Ediciones del Norte, 1986.
This updates *Historia de la novela hispanoamericana*, by Pedro Frank Andrea (1974). It contains four sections: Orígenes y siglo XIX, Siglo XX, La ruptura, and La novela de liberación.

Anderson Imbert, Enrique. *Historia de la literatura hispanoamericana*. 2 vols. 6 rev. ed. Mexico City: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1974. A broad general summary from colonial times to the present.

Anderson Imbert, Enrique, and Eugenio Florit. *Literatura hispanoamericana*. 2 vols. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970. An anthology prepared especially for students in the U.S. An effort is made to present as complete a picture as possible from Columbus to the present.

Arrom, Juan José. *Esquema generacional de las letras hispanoamericanas*. Bogotá: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, 1963. Very useful, providing a résumé of each generation of writers.

Earle, Peter G., and Robert G. Mead. *Historia del ensayo hispanoamericano*. Mexico City: Ediciones del Andrea, 1973 (Historia literaria de Hispanoamérica, vol. 6). A historical overview of Hispanic American essayists beginning with a general discussion of the essay as a literary genre. Very useful, because short bibliographies of original works and criticism are provided following the discussion of individual authors. A general bibliography is included at the end.

Fernández Moreno, César. *Latin America in Its Literature*. New York: Holmes & Meier, 1980. A collection of articles touching on Latin American literature in the world, the social function of literature, literature and society, literary criticism, and other related topics. Originally published in a Spanish edition as *América Latina en su literatura* (Paris: UNESCO, 1972).

Grossman, Rudolf. *Historia y problemas de la literatura latinoamericana*. Madrid: Revista de Occidente, 1972. Translated from German, this is a history with a general emphasis. The first section, "Los factores fundamentales de la literatura en el espacio latinoamericano," is probably the most useful. Throughout the work, specific authors are not treated as chapter headings, but an approach to them is provided through the name index.

Hamilton, Carlos. *Historia de la literatura latinoamericana*. 2d rev. ed. Madrid: Ediciones y Publicaciones Españolas, 1966. Divided in two parts with the second devoted to the twentieth century. Written especially for "el estudioso . . . en el ambiente de las universidades norteamericanas."

Jofré Barroso, Haydée M., comp. *Así escriben los latinoamericanos*. Buenos Aires: Ediciones Orión, 1974. An anthology of modern Spanish American authors.

Sánchez, Luis Alberto. *Historia comparada de las literaturas americanas*. 4 vols. Buenos Aires: Editorial Losada, 1973. An interesting work that, in addition to attempting to synthesize the literature of the Americas in all languages, provides a great deal of specific information about the literary production of individual countries and authors. Includes many illustrations. One-fourth of the last volume is devoted to bibliography.

Schwartz, Kessel. *A New History of Spanish American Fiction*. Coral Gables, FL: University of Miami Press, 1972. Covers the development of the Spanish American novel up to 1970.

The following books provide background information for the literature of specific countries.

Acevedo, Ramón Luis. *La novela centroamericana (desde el Popul-Vuh hasta los umbrales de la novela actual)*. Río Piedras: Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1982. History of Central American literature from the indigenous past to the present.

Arellano, Jorge Eduardo. *Panorama de la literatura nicaragüense*. Managua: Editorial Nueva Nicaragua, 1982. An overview of Nicaraguan literature that includes movements and authors.

Ayala Poveda, Fernando. *Manual de literatura colombiana*. Bogotá: Ecuar Editores, 1984. Organized by historical period with a general description for each as well as representative authors.

Bollo, Sarah. *Literatura uruguaya 1807–1975*. Montevideo: Universidad de la República, División Publicaciones y Ediciones, 1976. Well organized with information on literary movements as well as on major authors.

Darnet de Ferreyra, Ana Julia. *Historia de la literatura americana y argentina con su correspondiente antología*. Buenos Aires: Angel Estrada, 1939. Provides good biographical articles on colonial and nineteenth-century writers.

Hylet, Claude L., comp. *Brazilian Literature*. 3 vols. Washington: Georgetown University Pres, 1974–1975. More than just an outline, this worsk includes an anthology for each literary period.

Melgar Brizuela, Luis. *Literatura hispano-centroamericana y salvadoreña*. San Salvador: Ediciones del Pulgarcito, 1970. The overview of Central American and Salvadoran literature is the most valuable portion of this book.

Moisés, Massaud. *História da literatura brasileira*. 3 vols. São Paulo: Editora Cultrix, 1985. Organized by literary movements, the period covered is from 1500 to the present.

Oliveira, Otto. *Breve historia de la literatura antillana*. Mexico City: Ediciones de Andrea, 1957. An outline by period of the literature of Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico.

Bibliographies

Bibliographies list material published on a certain topic or in a certain place; some are limited to a particular kind of material, authors, or time periods. The most useful for most purposes are annotated, with descriptions or evaluations of each item listed. The following are bibliographies on Latin American literature:

Anderson, Robert Roland. *Spanish American Modernism: A Selected Bibliography*. Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1970. "A selected oibliography of books, articles, and pamphlets concerning the literary production of eighteen authors generally considered to be representative of the period of Spanish American Literature known as modernism." Intended to be useful for those who are primarily interested in literary criticism at whatever level. Omitted are unpublished works, newspapers, Sunday supplements, most reviews, and personal letters. Following a chapter dealing with general references, a section is devoted to each of the following authors: Julián del Casal, José Santos Chocano, Rubén Darío, Salvador Díaz Mirón, Manuel Díaz Rodríguez, José María Eguren, Enrique González Martínez, Manuel González Prada, Manuel Gutiérrez Nájera, Julio Herrera y Reissig, Ricardo Jaimes Freyre, Enrique Larreta, Leopoldo Lugones, José Martí, Amado Nervo, José Enrique Rodó, José Asunción Silva, and Guillermo Valencia.

Bryant, Shasta. *A Selective Bibliography of Bibliographies of Hispanic American Literature*. Austin: Institute of Latin American Studies, University of Texas Austin, 1976 (Guides and Bibliographies Series, no. 8). The main objective of this work is to provide "a useful and specific reference tool, for students of Hispanic American literature." The total number of references is 662 and the index includes all personal names and some subject categories.

Cortina, Lynn Ellen Rice. *Spanish-American Women Writers: A Bibliographical Research Check List*. New York: Garland Publishing, 1983. Organized by country. Includes many living writers.

Flores, Angel. *Bibliografía de escritores hispanoamericanos: A Bibliography of Spanish-American Writers 1609–1974*. New York: Gordian Press, 1975. Provides bibliographic information on 200 writers, living and dead. Under each name are listed the principal editions of the author's works, all other editions, major works of criticism, and a selected bibliography of critical and other works about the author. An excellent place to begin the study of major Spanish American authors.

Foster, David W. *The 20th Century Spanish American Novel: A Bibliographic Guide*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1975. A working bibliography of criticism for fifty-six commonly studied novelists.

Handbook of Latin American Studies. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, v. 1– , 1936– . Latin American literature is found in the volumes devoted to the humanities, which are issued every other year. The literature section is organized by country, listing new literary works for the period covered, as well as critical books and articles. There are author and subject indexes.

Rela, Walter. *Spanish American Literature: A Selected Bibliography. Literatura-hispanoamericana: bibliografía selecta 1970–1980*. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1982. A well-organized annotated bibliography that continues the author's previous work: *Guía bibliográfica de la literatura hispanoamericana 1900–1970*. Anthologies and congresses are listed separately and there are author and critic indexes.

Simmons, Merle E. *A Bibliography of the Romance and Related Forms in Spanish America*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1963. A guide to the published folklore of Spanish-speaking countries. Includes works of criticism.

Topete, José Manuel. *A Working Bibliography of Brazilian Literature*. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1957. Attempts to present a complete picture of major Brazilian writers.

U.S. Library of Congress. Latin American, Portuguese, and Spanish Division. *The Archive of Hispanic Literature on Tape: A Descriptive Guide*. Washington: Library of Congress, 1974. Lists approximately 10,000 individual poems and selections from novels, essays, and other commentaries. Includes information on how to order reproductions.

Zubatsky, David. *Latin American Literary Authors: An Annotated Guide to Bibliographies*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1986. "An annotated bibliography of personal bibliographies of Brazilian and Spanish American writers of novels, drama, poetry, and short stores as well as essayists, journalists, and literary critics.

Bibliographies relating to the literature of specific countries.

Bibliografía de dramaturgia brasileira. 2 vols. São Paulo: Escola de Comunicações e Artes da USP, 1981. A bibliography of all the Brazilian dramatists whose works were found in the libraries of São Paulo.

Fifty Caribbean Writers. New York: Greenwood Press, 1986. Substantive biographical sketches as well as bibliographies are provided for fifty living English-speaking authors. The introduction is a good bibliographic essay on Caribbean English literature.

Foster, David William. *Argentine Literature: A Research Guide*. 2d ed. New York: Garland Publishing, 1982. A bibliography of criticism covering all types of Argentine literature from all periods. Also lists critical material on specific authors.

———. *Mexican Literature: A Bibliography of Secondary Sources*. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1981. Very broad in scope. The first section consists of general references ranging from bibliographies to regional literature. Covers poetry, drama, fiction, and essays from the colonial period to the present. The second section consists of bibliographies for individual authors. Finally, there is an "Index of Critics."

Kargleder, Charles L., and Mory H. Warren. *Bibliografía selectiva de la literatura costarricense*. San José: Editorial Costa Rica, 1978. Listing materials from 1869 to 1976, this bibliography serves as a guide for those with a beginning interest in Costa Rican letters.

Indexes

These sources provide access to information in periodical articles and they locate elusive literary works, such as short stories published in anthologies.

HAPI: Hispanic American Periodicals Index. Los Angeles: Latin American Center, University of California, 1974–. An annual author-subject index to more than 200 periodicals in English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and German.

Hoffman, Herbert H. *Cuento Mexicano Index.* Newport Beach, CA: Headway Publications, 1978. Locates 7,230 Mexican short stories published after 1945.

Indice general de publicaciones periódicas latinoamericanas: humanidades y ciencias sociales. 10 vols. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1961–1970. These indexes are the most comprehensive of all indexes to Latin American periodicals. Access for literary materials is by author, title, or subject.

Pan American Union. Columbus Memorial Library. *Index to Latin American Periodical Literature, 1929–1960.* 8 vols. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1962. A subject and author index.

———. *Supplement . . . 1961–1965.* Boston: G. K. Hall, 1968.

Book Review Sources

The sources listed below are collections of the texts of book reviews. Additional reviews of literary works and literary criticism by Latin American authors and others are indexed in *Handbook of Latin American Studies* and *HAPI*. Also listed is *Leia*, a source for Brazilian book reviews. Reviews of books related to Latin American literature published in the United States can also be located in the *Book Review Digest*.

Foster, David William, and Virginia Ramos Foster, eds. *Modern Latin American Literature.* New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing, 1975. Complete book reviews in English for 137 Latin American authors. Includes translations of South American reviews.

Guía a las reseñas de libros de y sobre Hispanoamérica. A Guide to Reviews of Books from and about Hispanic America. Detroit: Blaine Ethridge Books, 1965–. Excepts of book reviews from all disciplines, including Latin American literature. Arranged by author, with a subject index.

Lector. Berkeley: California Language Data Base, 1982–. "The review journal for Spanish language and bilingual materials suitable for purchase by public, school, college, university, and special libraries in the United States."

Fact Sources

These sources provide basic factual information, defining terms and identifying literary figures.

Becco, Horacio Jorge. *Diccionario de literatura hispanoamericana: autores.* Buenos Aires: Huemil, una división de Editorial Abril, 1984. Supplies short descriptions of the literary contributions of major Hispanic American authors both living and dead. Each entry also includes lengthy, detailed bibliographies for each writer.

Coll, Edna. *Indice informativo de la novela hispanoamericana.* Río Piedras: Ed. Universitaria, Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1974– . Provides information on Latin American novels, their authors, and literary criticism about them, in a multivolume set, geographically arranged. Four volumes are available at present: Vol. 1, *Las Antillas*; Vol. 2, *Centroamérica*; Vol. 3, *Venezuela*; and Vol. 4, *Colombia.*

Foster, David William. *Dictionary of Contemporary Latin American Authors.* Tempe: Arizona State University, 1975. "A biographical dictionary for the most significant living writers in Latin America."

Grismer, Raymond L. *A Reference Index to Twelve Thousand Spanish American Authors.* 1939. Reprint. Detroit: Blaine Ethridge, 1971. Useful for the hard-to-locate, but a bit awkward to use.

Poesía feminista del mundo hispánico: desde la edad media hasta la actualidad. Compiled by Angel Flores and Kate Flores. Mexico City: Siglo Veintiuno, 1984. An anthology of feminist poets from all periods and all Spanish-speaking countries.

Fact sources for specific countries

Arriola Grande, F. Maurilio. *Diccionario literario del Perú, nomenclatura por autores.* 2 vols. 2d rev. ed. Lima: Editorial Universo, 1983. Substantial articles on the lives and works of Peruvian authors from colonial days to the twentieth century. Often complemented by portraits and other illustrations.

Barriga López, Franklin, and Leonardo Barriga López. *Diccionario de la literatura ecuatoriana*. 5 vols. Guayaquil: Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana, Núcleo de Guayas, 1980. This set is for the most part an alphabetical listing of Ecuadorian authors. Includes many who are still living.

Caribbean Writers: A Bio-Bibliographical-Critical Encyclopedia. Edited by Donald E. Herdeck. Washington, DC: Three Continents Press, 1979. A bibliography of authors who write in English, Spanish, French, Dutch, and Papiamento. Provides a photograph or a drawing of each author when available.

Diccionario de escritores colombianos. 3d ed. Barcelona: Plaza y Janes, 1985. Brief bio-bibliographical notes about past and contemporary Colombian authors and literary critics.

Diccionario de literatura cubana. Havana: Editorial Letras Cubanas, 1980– . This dictionary, sponsored by the Instituto de Literatura y Lingüística of the Academia de Ciencias de Cuba, provides thorough coverage of Cuban literature: authors, periodicals, literary movements, and organizations. Volume 1, which is the only one available to date, covers A–Ll.

Diccionario general de la literatura venezolana. Mérida: Universidad de los Andes. Centro de Investigaciones Literarias, 1974– . Volume 1, the only available at present, is entitled *Autores*. It includes Venezuelan writers and foreigners who wrote about or in Venezuela. There will eventually be three volumes.

Foster, David William, and Robert Reis, comps. *A Dictionary of Contemporary Brazilian Authors*. Tempe: Center for Latin American Studies, Arizona State University, 1981. Biographies of contemporary authors with lists of their major works.

Guzmán, Augusto. *Biografías de la literatura boliviana*. Cochabamba: Editorial Los Amigos del Libro, 1982. Covers major writers born between 1520 and 1925.

Ocampo de Gómez, Aurora, and Ernesto Prado Velázquez. *Diccionario de escritores mexicanos*. Mexico City: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1967. Gives biographical and bibliographical information about authors from pre-Hispanic times to 1967. Concentrates on authors of poetry, drama, essays, novels, and short stores, but also includes important figures in philosophy, journalism, history, biography, and criticism, when their work is related to literature.

Orgambide, Pedro, and Roberto Yahni. *Enciclopedia de la literatura argentina*. Buenos Aires: Editorial Sudamericana, 1970. Biographical sketches of twentieth-century Argentine authors.

Pérez-Maricevich, Francisco. *Diccionario de la literatura paraguaya*. Asunción: Instituto Colorado de Cultura, 1983– . (Biblioteca Corados Contemporáneos, no. 7.) The first volume covers Paraguayan writers.

Szmulewicz, Efraín. *Diccionario de la literatura chilena*. 2d rev. ed. Santiago: Editorial Andrés Bello, 1984. Information on individual authors, both living and dead. Also includes literary groups and prizes.

Journals

Journals contain the latest literary criticism and provide up-to-date information on literary figures, conferences, and trends. They publish the work of well-known authors and of little-known writers who later become important. They are excellent sources of reviews of literary works and criticism.

Carter, Boyd G. *Las revistas literarias de hispanoamérica*. Mexico City: Ediciones de Andrea, 1959. Describes the history and importance of some of the most outstanding literary journals. Though somewhat dated, it is still a good introduction.

Afro-Hispanic Review. Washington, DC: Afro-Hispanic Institute, vol. 1, no. 1– , 1982– . The major emphasis of this journal is on literature.

Argos. Caracas: División de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades de la Universidad Simón Bolívar, 1980– . About one-fourth of each issue is devoted to literature and linguistics and a good book review section is provided.

Casa del tiempo. Mexico City: Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana, vol. 1, no. 1– , 1980– . Mostly Mexican literature but other literatures are also discussed.

Chasqui. Madison: University of Wisconsin, Department of Spanish and Portuguese, vol. 1– , 1972– . Interviews, essays, and book reviews of Latin American literature.

El cuento. Mexico City. No. 1– , 1964– . A journal dedicated to the short story. Publishes a great many "mini stories" by new Latin American authors. Also includes a long and very interesting "letters to the editor" section. Juan Rulfo was a member of the editorial board.

Cultura. São Paulo. 1980– . Basic for the study of Brazilian literature. Its title was *O Estado de São Paulo: Suplemento cultural*, 1956-1974.

Em revista: antologia. São Paulo: Editora do Escritor Luz e Silva Editor, vol. 1– , 1976. Each issue consists of an anthology of short stories and poems by current authors.

Hispamérica. Buenos Aires. Vol. 1– , 1972– . Essays, interviews, poetry, and fiction.

Hispania. Ann Arbor: American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese. Vol. 1– , 1918– . A journal devoted to the interests of the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese.

Hojas de crítica. Mexico City: Universidad de México. Nos. 1–21, 1968–1970. "Suplemento de la *Revista de la Universidad de México*." After no. 21 was issued, *Hojas de crítica* was incorporated into the *Revista de la Universidad de México* as a special section.

I & L: Ideologies and Literature. Minneapolis: Institute for the Study of Ideologies and Literature, University of Minnesota. Vols. 1–4, 1976–1983; Nueva época, Vol. 1, nos. 1–3, winter-spring 1985. Although this publication ceased in 1985, it did a creditable job of presenting society and ideology as reflected in the literature of Latin America.

Imagen. Caracas: Instituto Nacional de Cultura y Bellas Artes. No. 1– , 1971– . Good source of information on current Venezuelan authors. Supersedes a journal with the same title.

Jornal de Letras. Rio de Janeiro. No. 1– , 1949– . Emphasis on the current literary scene in Brazil. Includes articles on children's literature, historical sources, criticism, etc.

Latin American Literary Review. Pittsburgh: Modern Languages Department, Carnegie-Mellon University. No. 1– , 1972– . Provides English-language reviews and criticism for interested colleagues outside the field.

Leia. São Paulo. Year 8, no. 78– , 1985– . Dedicated to current Brazilian literature and the Brazilian book trade. Previous titles were *Leia livros* and *Novo leia*, which began in 1978.

Lexis revista de lingüística y literatura. Lima: Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú, Departamento de Humanidades. About one-half of the articles concern the literature of Spanish America and Spain. Book reviews are a regular feature.

Lingüística y literatura. Medellín: Universidad de Antioquia, Facultad de Ciencias y Humanidades, Departamento de Español, 1978– . Half of each issue is devoted to literature, including both original material—particularly poetry—and criticism. Also summarizes meetings and reviews books.

Plural. Mexico City. No. 1– , 1971– . A critical journal of art and literature, once headed by Octavio Paz.

Review. New York: Center for Latin American Relations, 1985– . Reviews of translations and articles on contemporary authors. Began as the *Review* in 1968, then continued as the *Latin American Literature and Arts Review* (1980–84), and became the *Review* in 1985.

Suplemento literário. Belo Horizonte. No. 1013– , 1986– . A weekly publication that publishes criticism and other literary essays, information on new Brazilian publications, and literary works, such as poetry. The previous title was *Minas Gerais: Suplemento literário*, 1966–1986.

Sur. Buenos Aires. No. 1– , 1931– . Originally edited by the late Argentine essayist Victoria Ocampo. Includes criticism of world literature as well as of Argentina literature.

Taller de letras. Santiago: Instituto de Letras de la Universidad Católica de Chile. No. 1– , 1973– . Emphasizes literary criticism with bibliographies.

Unión. Havana: Unión de Escritores y Artistas de Cuba. Year 1– , 1962– . Literary works, criticism, and essays on literature an other cultural topics.

Translations

Translations enable those who do not read the original language of an author's work to become acquainted with it. The anthologies of Latin American literature listed below provide the English-language reader with an introduction to major Latin American authors, past and present. The bibliographies cited lead to additional Latin American literature in English translation.

Anthologies

Cohen, John Michael, comp. *Latin American Writing Today.* Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1967. An anthology in translation of major, mostly living, authors.

De Onís, Harriet. *The Golden Land: An Anthology of Latin American Folklore in Literature.* New York: Knopf, 1948. Attempts to "show how persistent the influence of Latin American folklore in its literature has been" by including commentary on works by classic Latin American authors such as Sarmiento, Javier de Viana, Borges, Arguedas, Monteiro Lobato, and Juan Bosch.

Donoso José, and William A. Henkin, comps. *The TriQuarterly Anthology of Contemporary Latin American Literature.* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1969. The fiction and poetry of about sixty writers in translation. Includes a section on Paraguayan poets.

Ecuatorial. London. No. 1– , 1978– . "Translation journal of contemporary work in Spanish/English/Portuguese." Somewhat behind in publication but perhaps will continue to publish.

Bibliographies

Corvalán, Graciela N. V. *Latin American Women Writers in English Translation: A Bibliography.* Los Angeles: Latin American Studies Center, California State University, 1980. A compilation of material in English by and about women authors. Not a critical bibliography; rather, an effort is made to list all the material available in English.

Freudenthal, Juan, and Patricia Freudenthal. *Index to Anthologies of Latin American Literature in English Translation.* Boston: G. K Hall, 1977. An index to literature by authors born during or after 1850. Entries are by author with indexes for translators and geographic regions. Not annotated.

Hulet, Claude Lyle, comp. *Latin American Poetry in English Translation.* Washington: Pan American Union, 1965. Provides "listings of Latin American poetry which have appeared as of the Spring of 1963."

———. *Latin American Prose in English Translation.* Washington: Pan American Union, 1964. "Includes not only imaginative writing but also works relating to anthropology, archaeology, biography, correspondence, etc." Often fails to mention the original title of the work, providing only the translated title.

Levine, Suzanne Jill, comp. *Latin America: Fiction & Poetry in Translation.* New York: Center for Inter-American Relations, 1970.

Shaw, Bradley A. *Latin American Literature in English, 1975–1978.* New York: Center for Inter-American Relations, 1979. Supplement to the above.

Children's Literature

The sources listed here provide an overview of Latin American children's literature as well as information on the literature in specific countries.

Antología nacional de literatura infantil. Lima: Instituto Nacional de Bienestar Familiar, 1984. A collection of examples of Peruvian children's literature that includes stories and poems.

Cabel, Jesús. *Literatura infantil y juvenil en nuestra América.* Lima: Centro de Investigación de la Literatura Infantil y Juvenil del Perú, 1984. Essays on the state of children's literature in the major countries in South America.

Coelho, Nelly Novaes. *Dicionário crítico da literatura infantil e juvenil brasileira 1882–1982.* São Paulo: Edições Quirón, 1983. An extensive bio-bibliography of authors of Brazilian children's literature.

Delgado Santos, Francisco. *Ecuador y su literatura infantil: estudio y bibliografía.* 2d ed. Quito: Subsecretaría de Cultura del Ministerio de Educación, 1984. An overview of children's literature in Ecuador with a bibliography of the literature itself as well as a bibliography for researchers.

Flores Scaramutti de Naveda, Carlota. *Reflexión y crítica en torno a la literatura infantil.* Lima: 1984. The emphasis is on an overview and criticism of children's literature in Peru.

Pastoriza de Etchebarne, Dora. *El cuento en la literatura infantil.* Buenos Aires: Editorial Kapelusz, 1962. Provides general information with an emphasis on Argentine children's literature. Includes a basic bibliography.

Peña Muñoz, Manuel. *Historia de la literatura infantil chilena.* Santiago: Editorial Andrés Bello, 1982. Each historical period has its own bibliography.

Puentes de Oyenard, Sylvia. *Literatura infantil uruguaya.* Mexico City: 1982. Emphasis is on the development of children's literature in the Americas and in Uruguay.

Seleção de livros para a infância e juventude. Rio de Janeiro: Fundação Nacional do Livro Infantil e Juvenil, 1979– . Published bimonthly, this journal consists of a continuing annotated bibliography organized by age level.

Selected Spanish American Novels in English Translation

Jane Garner, compiler

Translations offer the opportunity to broaden one's experience with ideas expressed in a language other than one's own. Included in this list are various novels of forty-two notable authors from the Spanish-speaking countries of Latin America and the Caribbean that have been translated into English, some more than once. Ranging from the first novel published in part in 1816 through those of the present day, they represent a variety of themes and literary movements. The list is divided into four sections according to the author's date of birth.

Authors Born before 1850

Altamirano, Ignacio Manuel (Mexico; 1834–1893)
Christmas in the Mountains. Translated by Harvey L. Johnson. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1961. Spanish title: *La navidad en las montañas.*

El Zarco, the Bandit. Translated by Mary Allt. London: Folio Society, 1957. Spanish title: *El Zarco: episodios de la vida mexicana en 1861–1863.*

Blest Gana, Alberto (Chile; 1830–1920)
Martín Rivas. Translated by Mrs. Charles Whitman. New York: Knopf, 1918. Spanish title: *Martín Rivas.*

Fernández de Lizardi, José Joaquín (Mexico; 1776-1827)
The Itching Parrot. Translated by Eugene Pressly; revised by Katherine Anne Porter. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1942. Spanish title: *El periquillo sarniento* (considered the first true Spanish American novel. First appeared in 1816, when three volumes were successively issued).

Isaacs, Jorge (Colombia; 1837–1895)
María: A South American Romance. Translated by Rollo Ogden. New York: Harper, 1918. Spanish title: *María.*

Mármol, José (Argentina; 1817–1871)
Amalia: A Romance of the Argentine Translated by Mary J. Serrano. New York: Dutton, 1919. Spanish title: *Amalia.*

Villaverde, Cirilo (Cuba; 1812–1894)
The Quadroon, or Cecilia Valdes: A Romance of Old Havana. Translated by Mariano J. Lorente. Boston: Issued for the St. Botolph Society by L. C. Page & Co., 1935. Another translation: *Cecilia Valdes, or Angel's Hill.* Translated by Sydney G. Gest. New York: Vantage Press, 1962. Spanish title: *Cecilia Valdés; o, La Loma del Angel.*

Authors Born between 1850 and 1899

Asturias, Miguel Angel (Guatemala; 1899–1974)
The Bejeweled Boy. Translated by Martin Shuttleworth. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1971. Spanish title: *El alhajadito*

The Cyclone. Translated by Darwin Flakoll and Claribel Alegría. London: Owen, 1967. Another translation: *Strong Wind.* Translation by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968. Spanish title: *Viento fuerte.*

The Eyes of the Interred. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Delacorte Press, 1973. Spanish title: *Los ojos de los enterrados.*

The Green Pope. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Delacorte Press, 1971. Spanish title: *El papa verde.*

Men of Maize. Translated by Gerald Martin. New York: Delacorte Press/S. Lawrence, 1975. Spanish title: *Hombres de maíz.*

Mulata. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Delacorte Press, 1967. Spanish title: *Mulata de tal.*

El Señor Presidente. Translated by Frances Partridge. New York: Atheneum, 1964. Spanish title: *El señor presidente.*

Azuela, Mariano (Mexico; 1873–1952)
The Under Dogs. Translated by E. Munguía, Jr. New York: Brentano's, 1929. Another edition: New York: New American Library, 1963. Another translation: *Two Novels of the Mexican Revolu-*

tion: The Trials of a Respectable Family and The Underdogs. Translated by Frances Kellam Hendricks and Beatrice Berler. San Antonio: Principia Press of Trinity University, 1963. Reprinted in *Three Novels: The Trials of a Respectable Family; The Underdog/The Firefly*. San Antonio: Trinity University Press, 1979. Spanish title: *Los de abajo*.

Marcela: A Mexican Love Story. Translated by Anita Brenner. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1932.

Two Novels of Mexico: The Flies; The Bosses. Translated by Lesley Byrd Simpson. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1956. Spanish titles: *Las moscas; Los caciques*.

Gallegos, Rómulo (Venezuela; 1884–1969)

Doña Barbara. Translated by Robert Malloy. New York: Jonathan Cape & Harrison Smith, 1931. Reprint: New York: Peter Smith, 1948. Spanish title: *Doña Bárbara*.

Gálvez, Manuel (Argentina; 1882–1962)

Holy Wednesday. Translated by Warre B. Wells. New York: Appleton-Century, 1934. Spanish title: *Miércoles santo*.

Nacha Regules. Translated by Leo Ongley. New York: Dutton, 1922. Spanish title: *Nacha Regules*

Güiraldes, Ricardo (Argentina; 1886–1927)

Don Segundo Sombra: Shadows on the Pampas. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1935. Reprint: West Drayton, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1948. Revised translation: New York: New American Library, 1966. Spanish title: *Don Segundo Sombra*.

Larreta, Enrique Rodríguez (Argentina; 1875–1961)

The Glory of Don Ramiro: A Life in the Times of Phillip II. Translated by L. B. Walton. London: Dent & Sons; New York: Dutton, 1924. Spanish title: *La gloria de Don Ramiro*.

López y Fuentes, Gregorio (Mexico; 1897–1966)

El Indio. Translated by Anita Brenner. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1937. Reprint: New York: Ungar, 1961. Spanish title: *El indio*.

Parra, Teresa de la (Venezuela; 1895–1936)

Mama Blanca's Souvenirs. Translated by Harriet de Onís. Washington, DC: Pan American Union, 1959. Spanish title: *Las memorias de Mamá Blanca*.

Reyles, Carlos (Uruguay; 1868–1938)

Castanets. Translated by Jacques LeClercq. New York: Jacobsen, 1929. Spanish title: *El embrujo de Sevilla*.

Rivera, José Eustasio (Colombia; 1889–1928)

The Vortex. Translated by Earle K. James. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935. Spanish title: *La vorágine*.

Rojas, Manuel (Chile; 1896–1973)

Born Guilty. Translated by Frank Gaynor. New York: Library Publishers, 1955. Spanish title: *Hijo de ladrón*.

Authors Born between 1900 and 1920

Aguilera Malta, Demetrio (Ecuador; 1909–1981)

Manuela, la caballeresa del sol. Translated by Willis Knapp Jones. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1967. Spanish title: *La caballeresa del sol*.

Seven Serpents & Seven Moons. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1979. Spanish title: *Siete lunas y siete serpientes*.

Alegría, Ciro (Peru; 1909–1967)

Broad and Alien Is the World. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1941. Spanish title: *El mundo es ancho y ajeno*

The Golden Serpent. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1943. Another edition: New York: New American Library, 1963. Spanish title: *La serpiente de oro*.

Amorim, Enrique (Uruguay; 1900–1960)

The Horse and His Shadow. Translated by Richard L. O'Connell and James Graham Luján. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943. Spanish title: *El caballo y su sombra*.

Arguedas, José María (Peru; 1911–1969)

Deep Rivers. Translated by Frances Horning Barraclough. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1978. Spanish title: *Los ríos profundos*.

Arreola, Juan José (Mexico; 1918–)

The Fair. Translated by John Upton. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1977. Spanish title: *La feria*.

Bioy Casares, Adolfo (Argentina; 1914–)
Asleep in the Sun. Translated by Suzanne Jill Levine. New York: Persea Books, 1978. Spanish title: *Dormir al sol*.

Carpentier, Alejo (Cuba; 1904–1980)
Explosion in a Cathedral. Translated by John Sturrock. 1963. Reprint: New York: Harper & Row, 1979. Spanish title: *El siglo de las luces*.

The Kingdom of This World. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Knopf, 1957. Spanish title: *El reino de este mundo*.

Reasons of State. Translated by Frances Partridge. London: Gollancz, 1976. Spanish title: *El recurso del método*.

The Lost Steps. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Knopf, 1956. Second edition: New York: Knopf, 1967. Spanish title: *Los pasos perdidos*.

Cortázar, Julio (Argentina; 1914–1984)
Hopscotch. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Pantheon Books, 1966. Spanish title: *Rayuela*.

A Manual for Manuel. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Pantheon Books, 1978. Spanish title: *Libro de Manuel*.

62: A Model Kit. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Pantheon Books, 1972. Spanish title: *62: modelo para armar*.

The Winners. Translated by Elaine Kerrigan. New York: Pantheon Books, 1965. Spanish title: *Los premios*.

Icaza, Jorge (Ecuador; 1906–1978)
Huasipungo: The Villagers. Translated by Bernard M. Dulsey. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1964. Spanish title: *Huasipungo*.

Mallea, Eduardo (Argentina; 1903–1982)
All Green Shall Perish, and Other Novellas and Stories. Translated by John B. Hughes et al. New York: Knopf, 1966. Spanish title: *Todo verdor perecerá*.

The Bay of Silence. Translated by Stuart Edgar Grummon. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1944. Spanish title: *La bahía de silencio*.

Onetti, Juan Carlos (Uruguay; 1909–)
The Shipyard. Translated by Rachel Caffyn. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1968. Spanish title: *El astillero*.

Revueltas, José (Mexico; 1914–1976)
The Stone Knife. Translated by H. R. Hays. New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1947. Spanish title: *El luto humano*.

Rulfo, Juan (Mexico; 1918–1986)
Pedro Páramo. Translated by Lysander Kemp. New York: Grove Press, 1959. Spanish title: *Pedro Páramo*.

Sábato, Ernesto R. (Argentina; 1911–)
The Outsider. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Knopf, 1950. Spanish title: *El túnel*.

Uslar Pietri, Arturo (Venezuela; 1906–)
The Red Lances. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Knopf, 1963. Spanish title: *Las lanzas coloradas*.

Yáñez, Agustín (Mexico; 1904–1980)
The Edge of the Storm. Translated by Ethel Brinton. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1963. Reprint: Austin: University of Texas Press, 1971. Spanish title: *Al filo del agua*.

The Lean Lands. Translated by Ethel Brinton. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1968. Spanish title: *Las tierras flacas*.

Authors Born 1920–

Cabrera Infante, Guillermo (Cuba; 1929–)
Three Trapped Tigers. Translated by Donald Gardner and Suzanne Jill Levine in collaboration with the author. New York: Harper & Row, 1971. Spanish title: *Tres tristes tigres*.

Denevi, Marco (Argentina; 1922–)
Rosa at Ten O'Clock. Translated by Donald A. Yates. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964. Spanish title: *Rosaura a las diez*.

Secret Ceremony. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Time, 1961. Spanish title: *Ceremonia secreta*.

Donoso, José (Chile; 1924–)

Coronation. Translated by Jocasta Goodwin. New York: Knopf, 1965. Spanish title: *Coronación*.

A House in the Country. Translated by David Pritchard with Suzanne Jill Levine. New York: Knopf, 1984. Spanish title: *Casa de campo*.

The Obscene Bird of Night. Translated by Hardie St. Martin and Leonard Mades. New York: Knopf, 1973. Spanish title: *El obsceno pájaro de la noche*.

Sacred Families: Three Novellas. Translated by Andrée Conrad. New York: Knopf, 1977. Spanish title: *Tres novelitas burguesas*.

This Sunday. Translated by Lorraine O'Grady Freeman. New York: Knopf, 1967. Spanish title: *Este domingo*.

Fuentes, Carlos (Mexico; 1928–)

A Change of Skin. Translated by Sam Hileman. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1968. Spanish title: *Cambio de piel*.

The Death of Artemio Cruz. Translated by Sam Hileman. New York: Farrar, Straus, 1964. Spanish title: *La muerte de Artemio Cruz*.

The Good Conscience. 1961. Reprint. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1961. Spanish title: *Las buenas conciencias*.

The Hydra Head. Translated by Margaret Sayers Peden. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1978. Spanish title: *La cabeza de la hidra*.

Where the Air Is Clear. Translated by Sam Hileman. 1960. Reprint. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1971. Spanish title: *La región más transparente*.

García Márquez, Gabriel (Colombia; 1928–)

The Autumn of the Patriarch. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Avon, 1977. Spanish title: *El otoño del patriarca*.

Chronicle of a Death Foretold. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Knopf, 1983. Spanish title: *Crónica de una muerte anunciada*.

In Evil Hour. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Harper & Row, 1979. Spanish title: *La mala hora*.

One Hundred Years of Solitude. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Harper & Row, 1970. Spanish title: *Cien años de soledad*.

Guido, Beatriz (Argentina; 1925–)

End of Day. Translated by A. D. Towers. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1966. Spanish title: *El incendio y las vísperas*.

The House of the Angel. Translated by Joan Coyne MacLean. New York: McGraw Hill, 1957. Spanish title: *La casa del ángel*.

Puig, Manuel (Argentina; 1932–)

Betrayed by Rita Hayworth. Translated by Suzanne Jill Levine. New York: Dutton, 1971. Reprint: New York: Vintage Books, 1981. Spanish title: *La traición de Rita Hayworth*.

Eternal Curse on the Reader of These Pages. New York: Random House, 1982. Spanish title: *Maldición eterna a quien lea estas páginas*.

Heartbreak Tango: A Serial. Translated by Suzanne Jill Levine. New York: Dutton, 1973. Spanish title: *Boquitas pintadas*.

Kiss of the Spider Woman. Translated by Thomas Colchie. New York: Knopf, 1979. Spanish title: *El beso de la mujer araña*.

Sarduy, Severo (Cuba; 1937–)

From Cuba with a Song. In *Triple Cross*. Translated by Suzanne Jill Levine. New York: Dutton, 1972. Spanish title: *De donde son los cantantes*. The other works in *Triple Cross* are *Holy Place*, by Carlos Fuentes, and *Hell Has No Limits*, by José Donoso.

Vargas Llosa, Mario (Peru; 1936–)

Aunt Julia and the Scriptwriter. Translated by Helen R. Lane. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1982. Spanish title: *La tía Julia y el escribidor*.

Captain Pantoja and the Special Service. Translated by Gregory Kolovakos and Ronald Christ. New York: Harper & Row, 1978. Spanish title: *Pantaleón y las visitadoras*.

Conversation in the Cathedral. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Harper & Row, 1975. Spanish title: *Conversación en la catedral*.

The Green House. Translated by Gregory Rabassa.

New York: Harper & Row, 1968. Spanish title: *La casa verde*.

The Time of the Hero. Translated by Lysander Kemp. New York: Grove Press, 1966. Spanish title: *La ciudad y los perros*.

The War of the End of the World. Translated by Helen R. Lane. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 1984. Spanish title: *La guerra del fin del mundo*.

Selected Brazilian Novels in English Translation

Jane Garner, compiler

The Brazilian novel has a distinguished tradition reaching back to 1682, when the allegorical work *História de predestinado peregrino e seu irmão precito*, written in Brazil by Alexandre de Gusmão, was published in Portugal. It was not until the mid-19th century, however, that the novel began to develop as a major genre among Brazilian writers. The popularity of Brazilian authors has been enhanced by the translation of their works from their native Portuguese into other languages, particularly English, French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. Included here is a representative group of English translations of novels of 32 writers, ranging from José de Alencar, born in 1829, to Autran Dourado, born almost a century later (1926).

Aguiar, Adonias (1915–). *Memories of Lazarus*. Translated by Fred P. Ellison. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1969. Portuguese title: *Memórias de Lázaro*.

Alencar, José Martiniano de (1829–1877). *Iraçéma, the Honey Lips*. Translated by Isabel Burton. New York: Howard Fertig, 1976. Reprint of translation published in 1886. Portuguese title: *Iracema*.

Almeida, José Américo de (1887–1980). *Trash*. Translated by R. L. Scott-Buccleuch. London: Peter Owen, 1978. Portuguese title: *A bagaceira*.

Almeida, Manuel Antônio de (1831–1861). *Memoirs of a Militia Sergeant*. Translated by Linton L. Barrett; revised by Henry Hare Carter. Washington, DC: Pan American Union, 1959. Portuguese title: *Memórias de um sargento de milícias*.

Amado, Jorge (1912–). *Dona Flor and Her Two Husbands: A Moral and Amorous Tale*. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1969. Portuguese title: *Dona Flor e seus dois maridos*.

———. *Gabriela, Clove and Cinnamon*. Translated by James L. Taylor and William L. Grossman. New York: Knopf, 1962. Portuguese title: *Gabriela, cravo e canela*.

———. *Home Is the Sailor*. Translated by Harriet de Onís. 1964. Reprint. New York: Avon Books, 1979. Portuguese title: *A completa verdade sobre as discutidas aventuras do Comandante Vasco Moscoso de Aragão, capitão de longo curso*.

———. *Jubiabá*. Translated by Margaret A. Neves. New York: Avon Books, 1984. Portuguese title: *Jubiabá*.

———. *Pen, Sword, Camisole*. Translated by Helen R. Lane. Boston: D. R. Godine, 1985. Portuguese title: *Farda, fardão, camisola de dormir*.

———. *Shepherds of the Night*. Translated by Harriet de Onís. New York: Knopf, 1967. Portuguese title: *Os pastores da noite*.

———. *Tent of Miracles*. Translated by Barbara Shelby. New York: Knopf, 1971. Portuguese title: *Tenda dos milagres*.

———. *Tereza Batista: Home from the Wars*. Translated by Barbara Shelby Merella. New York: Avon Books, 1977. Portuguese title: *Tereza Batista cansada de guerra*.

———. *Tieta the Goat Girl*. Translated by Barbara Shelby. New York: Knopf, 1979. Portuguese title: *Tieta do Agreste, pastora de cabras*.

———. *The Violent Land*. Translated by Samuel Putnam. New York: Knopf, 1965. Portuguese title: *Terras do sem fim*.

Andrade, Mário de (1893–1945). *Fraülein*. Translated by Margaret Richardson Hollingsworth. New York: Macaulay, 1933. Portuguese title: *Amar, verbo intransitivo*.

———. *Macunaíma*.

Aranha, José Pereira da Graça (1868–1931). *Canaan*. Translated by Mariano Joaquín Lorente. Boston: The Four Seas Co., 1920. Portuguese title: *Chanaan*.

Azevedo, Aluízio (1857–1913). *A Brazilian Tenement*. Translated by Harry W. Brown. 1926. Reprint. New York: H. Fertig, 1976. Portuguese title: *O cortiço*.

Callado, Antônio (1917–). *Don Juan's Bar*. Translated by Barbara Shelby. New York: Knopf, 1972. Portuguese title: *Bar Don Juan*.

———. *Quarup*. Translated by Barbara Shelby. New York: Knopf, 1970. Portuguese title: *Quarup*.

Carneiro, Cecílio J. (1911–1970). *The Bonfire*. Translated by Dudley Poore. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1944. Portuguese title: *A fogueira*.

Castro, Josué de (1908–1969). *Of Men and Crabs*. Translated by Susan Hertelendy. New York: Vanguard Press, 1970. Portuguese title: *Homens e caranguejos*.

Corção, Gustavo (1869–1978). *Who If I Cry Out*. Translated by Clotilde Wilson. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1967. Portuguese title: *Lições de abismo*.

Dourado, Waldomiro Autran (1926–). *A Hidden Life*. Translated by Edgar H. Miller, Jr. New York: Knopf, 1969. Portuguese title: *Uma vida em segrêdo*.

———. *Pattern for a Tapestry*. Translated by John M. Parker. London: Peter Owen, 1984. Portuguese title: *O risco do bordado*.

Freyre, Gilberto (1900–). *Mother and Son: A Brazilian Tale*. Translated by Barbara Shelby. New York: Knopf, 1967. Portuguese title: *Dona Sinhá e o filho padre*.

Lima Barreto, Afonso Henrique de (1881–1922). *Lima Barreto: Bibliography and Translations*. Compiled and edited by Maria Luisa Nunes. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1979. Includes earlier translations of two novels, which were revised by Nunes: *The Life and Death of M. J. Gonzaga de Sa* (translated by Rosa Dwyer and John Dwyer; Portuguese title: *Vida e morte de M. J. Gonzaga de Sá*); *Clara dos Anjos* (translated by Earl Fitz; Portuguese title: *Clara dos Anjos*).

Lins, Osman (1924–1978). *Avalovara*. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Knopf, 1980. Portuguese title: *Avalovara*.

Lispector, Clarice (1925–1977). *The Apple in the Dark*. Translated by Gregory Rabassa. New York: Knopf, 1967. Portuguese title: *A maçã no escuro*.

Machado de Assis, Joaquim Maria (1839–1908). *Counselor Ayres' Memorial*. Translated by Helen Caldwell. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1972. Portuguese title: *Memorial de Aires*.

———. *Dom Casmurro*. Translated by Helen Caldwell. New York: Noonday Press, 1953. Portuguese title: *Dom Casmurro*.

———. *Epitaph of a Small Winner*. Translated by William L. Grossman. New York: Noonday Press, 1952. Portuguese title: *Memórias pósthumas de Brás Cubas*.

———. *Esau and Jacob*. Translated by Helen Caldwell. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1965. Portuguese title: *Esaú e Jacob*.

———. *The Hand & the Glove*. Translated by Albert I. Bagby, Jr. Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1970. Portuguese title: *A mão e a luva*.

———. *Helena*. Translated by Helen Caldwell. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1984. Portuguese title: *Helena*.

———. *Iaiá Garcia*. Translated by Albert I. Bagby, Jr. Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1977. Portuguese title: *Yayá Garcia*.

———. *Philosopher or Dog?* Translated by Clotilde Wilson. New York: Noonday Press, 1954. Portuguese title: *Quincas Borba*.

Montello, Josué (1917–). *Coronation Quay*. Translated by Myriam Henderson. London: Rex Collings, 1975. Portuguese title: *Cais da Sagração*.

Olinto, Antônio (1919–). *The Water House*. Translated by Dorothy Heapy. London: Rex Collings, 1970. Portuguese title: *A casa da água*.

Penna, Cornélio (1896–1958). *Threshold*. Translated by Tona Riggio and Edward A. Riggio. Philadelphia: Franklin, 1975. Portuguese title: *Fronteira*.

Pereira, Antônio Olavo (1913–). *Marcoré*. Translated by Alfred Hower and John Saunders. Austin:

University of Texas Press, 1970. Portuguese title: *Marcoré.*

Queiroz, Dinah Silveira de (1911–1982). *The Women of Brazil.* Translated by Roberta King. New York: Vantage Press, 1980. Portuguese title: *A muralha.* Also published as *Terra violenta.*

Queiroz, Rachel de (1910–). *Dôra, Doralina.* Translated by Dorothy Scott Loos. New York: Avon Books, 1984. Portuguese title: *Dôra, Doralina.*

———. *The Three Marias.* Translated by Fred P. Ellison. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1963. Portuguese title: *As três Marias.*

Ramos, Graciliano (1892–1953). *Anguish.* Translated by L. C. Kaplan. New York: Knopf, 1946. Portuguese title: *Angústia.*

———. *Barren Lives.* Translated by Ralph Edward Dimmick. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1965. Portuguese title: *Vidas sêcas.*

Rêgo, José Lins do (1901–1957). *Plantation Boy.* Translated by Emmi Baum. New York: Knopf, 1966. Portuguese title: *Menino de engenho.* Volume also includes translations of *Doidinho* and *Bangüê.*

Resende, Otto Lara (1922–). *The Inspector of Orphans.* Translated by Anne Cravinho. London: Andre Deutsch, 1968. Portuguese title: *O braço direito.*

Setúbal, Paulo (1893–1937). *Domitila: The Romance of an Emperor's Mistress.* Translated by Margaret Richardson. New York: Coward-McCann, 1930. Portuguese title: *A Marqueza de Santos.*

Telles, Lygia Fagundes (1923–). *The Girl in the Photograph.* Translated by Margaret A. Neves. New York: Avon Books, 1982. Portuguese title: *As meninas.*

Vasconcelos, José Mauro de (1920–). *My Sweet-Orange Tree.* Translated by Edgar H. Miller, Jr. London: Michael Joseph, 1971. Portuguese title: *O meu pé de laranja lima.*

Veiga, José J. (1915–). *The Three Trials of Manirema.* Translated by Pamela G. Bird. New York: Knopf, 1970. Portuguese title: *A hora dos ruminantes.*

Veríssimo, Erico (1905–1975). *Consider the Lilies of the Field.* Translated by Jean Neel Karnoff. New York: Greenwood Press, 1969. Portuguese title: *Olhai os lírios do campo.*

———. *Crossroads.* Translated by L. C. Kaplan. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Portuguese title: *Caminhos cruzados.*

———. *His Excellency, the Ambassador.* Translated by Linton Lomas Barrett and Marie McDavid Barrett. New York: Macmillan, 1967. Portuguese title: *O senhor embaixador*

———. *Night.* Translated by L. L. Barrett. New York: Macmillan, 1956. Portuguese title: *Noite.*

———. *The Rest Is Silence.* Translated by L. C. Kaplan. 1946. Reprint. New York: Greenwood Press, 1969. Portuguese title: *O resto é silêncio.*

———. *Time and the Wind.* Translated by L. L. Barrett. New York: Macmillan, 1951. Portuguese title: *O tempo e o vento.*

Latin American Cinema

Laura Gutiérrez-Witt, compiler

Serious research and publication on the Latin American cinema by U. S. scholars began in the 1960s, although the cinematic industry in Latin America began shortly after the first motion picture was shown in Paris in 1895. The major motion picture–producing countries during the early years were Mexico and Argentina, but the rise of the cinema in Cuba and in Brazil during the 1960s brought new vigor to efforts in all countries. The literature therefore is both historical and critical, reflecting the changes wrought on the cinema by political and economic conditions. Recently, Mexican American as well as other Hispanic cinematic production in the U.S. has been noted in bibliographies and directories. These are mentioned where included in the general sources.

General Sources

Burton, Julianne. *The New Latin American Cinema: An Annotated Bibliography of Sources in English, Spanish and Portuguese, 1960–1980.* New York: Smyrna Press, 1983. 80 pp. "Research guide to historical, theoretical, and critical works on Latin American cinema." Arranged by type of publication, this annotated bibliography also includes a section on Chicano, Puerto Rican, and exiled Cuban filmmakers in the United States.

———. *Cinema and Social Change in Latin America: Conversations with Filmmakers.* Austin: University of Texas Press, 1986. 302 pp. Twenty interviews with "key figures of Latin American cinema, covering three decades and ranging from Argentina to Mexico."

Les cinémas de l'Amérique Latine. Edited by Guy Hennebelle and Alfonso Gumucio-Dagrón. Paris: Lherminier, 1981. 529 pp., illus. Essays in French by specialists cover the cinema in each country, including history, financing, organization, and production. Each country section also includes an alphabetically arranged index of the principal directors, producers, writers, and actors with biographical information and filmography for each. A section on Chicano cinema is appended. Well illustrated. Good bibliography. Cinematic and organizational institutions in each country as well as festivals are listed.

Handbook of Latin American Studies. Austin: University of Texas Press, v. 38– . 1976– . Annual. Volumes 38 and 40 include general bibliographies for Latin American cinema materials. Volume 39 includes a bibliography on revolutionary Cuban cinema, and volume 44 covers Brazilian cinema. A bibliography on Latin American cinema is published every four years.

Schnitman, Jorge A. *Film Industries in Latin America: Dependency and Development.* Norwood, NJ: ABLEX Publishing, 1984. 134 pp. Historical overview of motion picture industry in Latin America from economic and political perspectives. Focuses on Argentina, Mexico, Brazil, Chile, and Bolivia.

Trelles Plazaola, Luis. *Cine sudamericano: diccionario de directores.* Rio Piedras: Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1986. 373 pp. Alphabetical listing of South American film directors. Entries include biographical information as well as filmography.

Twenty-five Years of the New Latin American Cinema. Edited by Michael Chanan. London: British Film Institute, Channel Four Television, 1983. 40 pp. Anthology of eight articles by Latin American filmmakers translated into English. Filmography is appended.

Argentina

España, Claudio. *Medio siglo de cine: Argentina Sono Film.* Buenos Aires: Editorial Abril, 1984. 345 pp. illus. Journalistic account of history of major Argentine studio.

Historia del cine argentino. Buenos Aires: Centro Editor de América Latina, 1984. 190 pp. Five essays trace history of Argentine cinema. Appendices include chronology from 1896 to 1983 of major filmic events in Argentina and a history of international awards. Short bibliography. Profusely illustrated.

Bolivia

Gumucio Dagrón, Alfonso. *Historia del cine en Bolivia.* Cochabamba: Editorial Los Amigos del Libro, 1982. 376 pp. Well-researched history of Bolivian cinema. Text indexed by film title and personal names. Good bibliography. Some illustrations.

Mesa Gisbert, Carlos D. *La aventura del cine boliviano, 1952–1985.* La Paz: Editorial Gisbert y Cia., 1985. 354 pp. Despite years indicated in title, the narrative also covers the introduction and early years of cinema in Bolivia. Statistics on production and distribution. Filmography for 1952 to 1985 as well as biographies of major protagonists.

Brazil

Brazilian Cinema. Edited by Randal Johnson and Robert Stam. Rutherford, NJ: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press, 1982. 373 pp. bibl. illus. Essays and interviews by and about Brazilian filmmakers and specialists. Covers Brazilian cinema since 1960.

Embrafilme. *Catálogo de filmes.* Rio de Janeiro: Departamento do Filme Cultural, 1978. 196 pp. Film catalog issued by official Brazilian cinema agency. Entries include plot summaries.

Gerber, Raquel. *O cinema brasileiro e o processo político e cultural (de 1950 a 1978): crítica e seletiva.* Rio de Janeiro: Embrafilme, 1982. 290 pp. Very complete bibliography, which includes newspaper articles and reviews.

Johnson, Randal. *Cinema Novo x 5.* Austin: University of Texas Press, 1984. 246 pp. Deals with the films of the "five most significant directors of modern Brazilian cinema: Joaquim Pedro de Andrade, Carlos Diegues, Ruy Guerra, Glauber Rocha, and Nelson Pereira dos Santos."

———. *The Film Industry in Brazil: Culture and the State.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1987. 265 pp. bibl. tables. A historical narrative of the Brazilian cinema from 1896 to the present, focusing on economic and cultural aspects of its development. Useful appendices list total Brazilian film production as well as Embrafilme-sponsored projects.

Mello, Alcino Teixeira de. *Legislação do cinema brasileiro.* 2 vols. Rio de Janeiro: Embrafilme, 1978. "Collection of the most important federal legislation concerning the film industry in Brazil, including resolutions of the Instituto Nacional do Cinema (1966–75) and the Conselho Nacional do Cinema (1976–78). Essential source for anyone seriously interested in studying the film industry in Brazil" (*HLAS* 44).

West, Dennis. *Contemporary Brazilian Cinema.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Latin American Institute, 1985. 27 pp. Brief historical overview precedes bibliography of books, articles, and scripts. Useful notes on Brazilian film distributors in the U.S.

See also *Handbook of Latin American Studies.*

Chile

Chilean Cinema. Edited by Michael Chanan. London: British Film Institute, 1976. 102 pp. Historical overview and interviews with four major Chilean cinema figures. Appendixes include English translations of selected newspaper articles from 1971 to 1975, a filmography, and a bibliography.

Ossa Coo, Carlos. *Historia del cine chileno.* Santiago: Empresa Editora Nacional Quimantú, 1971. 97 pp. Historical overview from beginning to 1971. Illustrated. Footnotes.

Vega, Alicia. *Re-visión del cine chileno.* Santiago: Editorial Aconcagua, 1979. 391 pp. illus. Historical essay from 1910 to 1979. Includes bio-filmographies of major protagonists. Illustrated.

Colombia

Colombia. *Legislación cinematográfica colombiana: leyes, decretos, resoluciones, acuerdos, actas, circulares, conceptos, autos, sentencias.* Bogotá: Suárez Melo, 1980. 388 pp.

Martínez Pardo, Hernando. *Historia del cine colombiano.* Bogotá: Librería y Editorial América Latina, 1978. 472 pp. Historical essay from 1900 to 1976 of Colombian film industry. Short bibliography

Valverde, Umberto. *Reportaje crítico al cine colombiano.* Bogotá: Editorial Toronuevo, 1978. 355 pp. Interviews with fourteen major Colombian filmmakers.

short plot summary, evaluation. Chronology and index by director are appended.

Cuba

Adelman, Alan, ed. *A Guide to Cuban Cinema.* Pittsburgh: Center for Latin American Studies, University of Pittsburgh, 1981. 67 pp. General introduction and essays on twelve Cuban films, including distributor, content analysis, critique, usefulness for classroom instruction.

Chanan, Michael. *The Cuban Image: Cinema and Cultural Politics in Cuba.* London: British Film Institute, 1985. 314 pp. History of Cuban cinema from beginnings to 1979. References.

See also *Handbook of Latin American Studies.*

Mexico

Anduiza Valdemar, Virgilio. *Legislación cinematográfica mexicana.* Mexico City: Filmoteca, UNAM, 1983. 358 pp.

Cávalos Orozco, Federico, and Esperanza Vázquez Bernal. *Filmografía general del cine mexicano, 1906–1931.* Puebla: Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, 1985. 155 pp. Chronological listing of Mexican films. Entries include as much information as obtainable from published sources as well as synopses. Excellent bibliography. Film title and director indexes.

La guía del cine mexicano de la pantalla grande a la televisión, 1919–1984. Mexico City: Editorial Patria, 1984. 361 pp. Alphabetical listing of Mexican films as well as Mexican-U.S. productions. Entries include year, length, director, actors, short plot summary, evaluation. Chronology and index by director are appended.

Mora, Carl. *Mexican Cinema: Reflections of a Society, 1896–1980.* Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1982. 282 pp. Scholarly exposition of Mexican filmic history from 1896 to 1980. Appendix on Mexican film production for same years arranged chronologically. References and very complete bibliography.

Reyes Nevares, Beatriz. *The Mexican Cinema: Interviews with Thirteen Directors.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1976. 176 pp. illus.

Venezuela

Aguirre, Jesús M. *El nuevo cine venezolano.* Caracas: Editorial Ateneo de Caracas, 1980. 170 pp. illus. History, legislation, and plans for development of industry.

Izaguirre, Rodolfo. *Cine venezolano: largometrajes.* Caracas: Fondo Editorial Cinemateca Nacional, 1983. 163 pp. illus. English and Spanish. Filmography entries include protagonists and their previous work, synopses.

Visor: guía venezolana de cine, televisión, artes escénicas y audiovisuales. Caracas: Producciones Visor. Directory includes studios, producers, other professionals, distribution and exhibition information. Sections on national organizations, legislation, and biographies of major protagonists are appended. Issued periodically.

Mexican American Studies

Gilda Baeza, compiler

This bibliography lists many of the basic information sources useful to the study of Mexican Americans and other Hispanic groups in the United States.

Sources of Background Information

The emergence of sources on Mexican American studies is a relatively recent occurrence due largely to the social movements of the 1960s. Only a scattering of factual sources existed prior to that time. The following are sources that help the researcher become familiar with the history, literature, and culture of Mexican Americans. They are good beginning points for research.

Acuña, Rodolfo. *Occupied America: The History of Chicanos.* 2d ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1981. A comprehensive history of Chicanos written from the internal colonialism viewpoint. This work represents a significant departure from previous efforts attempting to interpret Chicano history.

Bruce-Novoa, John David. *Chicano Authors: Inquiry by Interview.* Austin: University of Texas Press, 1980. Transcribed interviews of fourteen prominent Chicano writers. Questions posed elicit responses from the authors regarding biographical information, childhood influences, literary style, political inclinations, etc. A good source for factual background information on the key figures of Chicano literature.

Cotera, Martha P. *Diosa y Hembra: The History and Heritage of Chicanas in the U.S.* Austin: Information Systems Development, 1976. A study of the participation of women in Mexican American history from the precolonial era until the present. One of the few works that highlights Chicanas in a historical context.

McWilliams, Carey. *North from Mexico.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1969. A sensitive sociohistorical account of the Mexican American people. Originally published in 1950, this work is a pioneering effort in documenting Southwest history from the Mexican American perspective.

The Mexican American Experience: An Interdisciplinary Anthology. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1985. A reader consisting of papers primarily on social science topics pertinent to Mexican Americans. Two-thirds of the items are reprints from a special thematic issue of *Social Science Quarterly* (June 1984). Collectively, these papers provide a good basic background for further research in the social sciences.

Ortego, Philip D., ed. *We Are Chicanos: An Anthology of Mexican American Literature.* New York: Washington Square Press, 1973. A sampler of Chicano writings illustrating the importance of the Mexican American contribution to American literature. Excerpts and/or representative works of both literary figures and social commentators of the "Chicano Renaissance" are included.

Pain and Promise: The Chicano Today. Edited by Edward Simmen. New York: New American Library, 1972. A compilation of thirty-two works written in the social context of the sixties. Useful for gaining an understanding of the concerns that gave rise to the Chicano movement.

Samora, Julian, ed. *La Raza: Forgotten Americans.* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1966. A collection of scholarly papers on Mexican Americans by noted authorities in the fields of education, religion, politics, civil rights, labor, and demography. Initiated by the Rosenberg Foundation, the purpose of this classic study was to provide an assessment of the status of the Mexican American for the development of public policy.

Sourcebook of Hispanic Culture in the United States. Edited by David William Foster. Chicago: American Library Association, 1982. A basic introduction to the study of Mexican Americans, continental Puerto Ricans, and Cuban Americans. Bibliographic essays precede each topical section of annotated entries.

Twice a Minority: Mexican American Women. Edited by Margarita Melville. St. Louis: 1980. A collection of essays that provides an overview of contemporary issues facing the Chicana: matresence (birth control, childbirth, abortion, child-rearing practices), gender roles, and cultural conflict.

Bibliography

Ballesteros, Octavio A. *Bilingual-Bicultural Education: An Annotated Bibliography, 1936–1982.* Jefferson, NC: McFarland, 1983. Includes books, scholarly and professional journal literature, ERIC documents, and articles from general-interest magazines. Over 550 entries.

Bibliography of Writings on La Mujer. Compiled by Christina Portillo, Graciela Ríos, and Martha Rodríguez. Berkeley: Chicano Studies Library, University of California, 1976. A listing of holdings on Chicanas/Mexicanas at the Chicano Studies Library at the University of California, Berkeley. Though dated, it provides a good basis for research on women.

Bilingual Educational Publications in Print. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1983– . Lists over 3,000 books and audiovisual materials available for bilingual education programs. Formatted similarly to *Books in Print*, each entry gives complete bibliographic information, price, and intended grade level when appropriate. Directory of foreign book importers and distributors included.

Córdova, Gilberto Benito. *Bibliography of Unpublished Materials Pertaining to Hispanic Culture.* Santa Fe: Bilingual-Bicultural Communication Arts Unit, Division of Instruction Services, New Mexico State Department of Education, 1972. This work, a product of the Works Progress Administration Writers' Project, includes unpublished materials dealing with New Mexican Hispanic culture. Covers topics such as folklore, social customs, children's games, festivities and celebrations, biography, and traditions.

Goldman, Shifra M., and Tomás Ybarra-Frausto. *Arte Chicano: A Comprehensive, Annotated Bibliography of Chicano Art, 1965–1981.* Berkeley: Chicano Studies Library Publications Unit, University of California, 1985. A well-annotated bibliography of Chicano art since the mid-1960s, arranged by subject with author/artist and title indexes. The introduction provides a useful overview of the subject.

Grove, Pearce S., Becky J. Barnett, and Sandra J. Hansen. *New Mexico Newspapers: A Comprehensive Guide to Bibliographic Entries and Locations.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1975. Lists titles of New Mexican newspapers by county and provides complete bibliographic information. Library locations for each title are indicated along with dates of holdings. Numerous entries are Spanish-language newspapers or newspapers from communities with significant Hispanic populations.

Heisley, Michael. *An Annotated Bibliography of Chicano Folklore from the Southwestern United States.* Los Angeles: Center for the Study of Comparative Folklore and Mythology, University of California, 1977. A bibliography of over 1,000 citations to folklore and cultural traditions for which sources are difficult to locate. Divided into general topical sections: music, speech, customs, games, etc. Includes geographic and subject indexes.

Lacayo, Carmela G. *A Research, Bibliographic, and Resource Guide on the Hispanic Elderly.* Los Angeles: Asociación Nacional Pro Personas Mayores, 1981. An annotated list of books, journal articles, dissertations, and government documents on the Hispanic elderly. Also includes sections on resources such as gerontology centers, data bases, and a selected bibliography on aging.

Lomeli, Francisco A., and Donaldo W. Urioste. *Chicano Perspectivews in Literatuure: A Critical and Annotated Bibliography.* Albuquerque: Pajarito Publications, 1976. An important resource for Chicano literary criticism despite its publication date. Provides critical annotations to literary works in fiction, poetry, theater, and the oral tradition in print. Works included are key pioneering works in the genre of Chicano literature.

Maciel, David. *Mexico: A Selected Bibliography of Sources for Chicano Studies.* Los Angeles: Chicano Studies Center, University of California, 1975. A compilation of secondary sources on Mexico that would be useful for the student of Chicano studies. Since many elements of Mexican history are relevant to Chicano studies, the entries were selected for inclusion based on their interrelatedness.

Meier, Matt S. *Bibliography of Mexican American History*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1984. Over 4,000 entries for publications related to Mexican American history from the colonial period to the present, arranged chronologically. Partially annotated. Subject index.

Momeni, Jamshid A. *Demography of Racial and Ethnic Minorities in the United States: An Annotated Bibliography and a Review Essay*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1984. Introduced by an essay on the demography of minorities, this bibliography provides useful sources on various aspects of the topic: fertility patterns, marriage and family, health and mortality, migration, urbanization, and economy. Considers Hispanics, blacks, American Indians, Asians, and Pacific Islanders. Excellent for comparative studies.

Newton, Frank, Esteban L. Olmedo, and Amado M. Padilla. *Hispanic Mental Health Research: A Research Guide*. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1982. This bibliography, compiled under the direction of the Spanish Speaking Mental Health Research Center, contains over 2,000 citations and abstracts on sources pertaining to the mental health of Hispanics. A dictionary of terms used as descriptors is included.

Quién Sabe? A Preliminary List of Chicano Reference Materials. Compiled and edited by Francisco García-Ayvens, Darien Fisher, and Hilda Villarreal. Los Angeles: Chicano Studies Center, UCLA, 1981. An annotated, bibliographic listing of reference materials that have proven to be most useful at the Chicano Studies Library at UCLA. Items included cover general works, history, folklore, social sciences, elected officials, education, music, fine arts, language, literature, bibliography, and medicine.

Robinson, Barbara J., and J. Cordell Robinson. *The Mexican American: A Critical Guide to Research Aid*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1981. Lists nearly 700 general works and specific subject bibliographies on a variety of topics pertaining to Mexican Americans. Each chapter begins with an essay and is followed by annotated entries. Specific subject bibliographies are in the areas of education, folklore, history, labor, linguistics, literature, social and behavioral sciences, and women.

Tatum, Charles M. *A Selected and Annotated Bibliography of Chicano Studies*. Lincoln, NE: Society of Spanish and Spanish-American Studies, 1979. Over 500 citations, primarily on Chicano art, folklore, language, and music. Good annotations enhance its usefulness, particularly since many entries are unique to this bibliography.

Indexes

Chicano Periodical Index: A Cumulative Index to Selected Periodicals. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1979– . Complete author, title, and subject access to journal literature pertaining to Mexican Americans. The first two volumes index Chicano journals from 1968 to 1981. Subsequent volumes provide continuous access to Chicano journals, but also include selected articles from mainstream periodicals. A subject thesaurus is provided.

COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service. Oakland, CA: Comité de México y Aztlán, May 1972–December 1980. Indexes and reprints articles of Mexican American interest from the following newspapers: *Albuquerque Journal, Arizona Republic, Denver Post, Los Angeles Times, El Paso Times, San Francisco Chronicle*, and the *San Antonio Express*. Unfortunately, this publication is no longer being published, but is quite useful for the years it covers.

De León, Arnoldo. *Apuntes tejanos*. 2 vols. Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1978. Index to several Texas newspapers of the nineteenth century. Focuses on articles relevant to Tejanos. Volume 1 indexes the *San Antonio Express* (1869–1900) and the *San Antonio Herald* (1855–1878). Volume 2 indexes the *Corpus Christi Weekly Caller* (1883–1899), the *Corpus Christi (Matamoros and Brownsville) Ranchero* (1895–1970), the *El Paso Times* (1883–1899), the *El Paso Daily Herald* (1881–1899), and the *Austin Statesman* (1871–1899).

HAPI: Hispanic American Periodicals Index. Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications, University of California, Los Angeles, 1970– . Indexes a few journals emphasizing Mexican American studies. Also includes articles from Latin American studies journals that pertain to Mexican American topics.

Fact Sources

The sources listed here include directories, dictionaries, and other publications providing factual information on a variety of subjects related to Mexican Americans. They are the most up-to-date publications available on the topics covered.

Dictionaries

Fuentes, Dagoberto, and José A. López. *Barrio Language Dictionary of Caló.* La Puente, CA: El Barrio Publications, 1974. A dictionary of terms and phrases commonly used in the Chicano barrio. Although usage of some of the terms may be dated, it is useful for historical purposes in the study of popular and street culture at the time of publication.

Kay, Margarita Artschwager. *Southwestern Medical Dictionary.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1977. Compiled by a public health nurse, this dictionary contains 1,200 English-language entries and 1,300 entries in Spanish on medical terms and phrases commonly used among Hispanics in the Southwest. Its value is augmented by the inclusion of regionalisms and colloquialisms, particularly as they relate to home remedies and other folklore associated with illness.

Polkinhorn, Harry, Alfredo Velasco, and Mal Lambert. *El libro de Caló.* San Diego: Aticus Press, 1983. A dictionary of terms commonly used in Caló dialect. Reflects more contemporary usage than the *Barrio Language Dictionary.*

Vásquez, Librado Keno, and María Enriqueta Vásquez. *Regional Dictionary of Chicano Slang.* Austin: Jenkins Co., 1975. A dictionary of nonstandard slang used in the Chicano Southwest. A unique feature is the inclusion of geographic regions where particular terms and phrases are used.

Directories

Austin Hispanic Directory. Austin: Information Systems Development, 1985– . An annual publication providing a Spanish-surname residential listing and a bilingual yellow pages directory for businesses in Austin. Included is a separate blue-page section section listing Hispanic organizations and media sources.

Burrelle's Hispanic Media Directory. Livingston, NJ: Burrelle's Media Directories, 1983– . Includes names and addresses of print and broadcast media and wire services. When appropriate, contains information regarding the entries, for example, circulation figures for print media.

Hispanic Speakers National Directory. Denver: Cuarón Silvas & Associates, 1984. An alphabetical listing of prominent Hispanic individuals who are available for speaking engagements or consulting. Emphasizes individuals in private enterprises. Address, phone number, community activities, areas of expertise, and language abilities are included.

Martínez, Julio A. *Chicano Scholars and Writers: A Bibliographic Directory.* Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1979. A compilation of writers and scholars in the field of Chicano and border studies with a focus on academia. Each entry includes biographical data, educational history, professional affiliations, honors, a bibliography of published works, a listing of public speaking engagements, and a bibliography of criticism of the person's works.

Serving the Hispanic Elderly of the United States: National Community Service Directory. Los Angeles: Asociación Nacional Pro Personas, 1982. Lists organizations and agencies concerned with the needs of the Hispanic elderly. Most useful component is the section on organizational profiles, which provides basic information on each organization and the type of service it provides for the elderly. A glossary of terms augments the directory's usefulness.

Who's Who: Chicano Office Holders. Silver City, NM: A. D. Martínez, 1975– . Yearly directory of officials of Hispanic descent who hold political office or significant governmental posts. Divided into federal, state, and local government. Includes a section of political party functions and Chicano civic organizations.

Art

Beardsley, John, and Jane Livingston. *Hispanic Art in the United States: Thirty Contemporary Painters and Sculptors.* Houston: Museum of Fine Arts; New York: Abbeville Press, 1987. This work, based on an exhibition organized by the Museum of Fine Arts, Houston, features excellent color reproductions, biographies and bibliographies of the artists, and a good general bibliography. It also includes background essays by the authors and an essay, "Art and Identity: Hispanics in the United States," by Octavio Paz.

Education

Bilingual Special Education Resource Guide. Edited by Carol H. Thomas and James L. Thomas. Phoenix: Oryx Press, 1982. This two-part guide addresses "the educational programming for the bilingual special child." The first part consists of a collection of essays by authorities in bilingual special education. Among the topics are issues and concerns, the handicapped child, curriculum development, social and emotional needs, communicating with parents, career opportunities, and teacher education. The second section lists sources of information such as agencies and their addresses, individuals, networks, and a bibliography of professional literature.

Council on Interracial Books for Children. *Guidelines for Selecting Bias-Free Textbooks and Storybooks*. New York: 1980. Considers the features an individual should evaluate in selecting materials for children. Emphasis is on the selection of positive portrayals of minorities, including Hispanics. Scattered throughout are examples of excellent and poor works. An added feature is a checklist for each minority group.

Figueroa, Richard A., and Nadeen T. Ruiz. *The Bilingual Special Education Dictionary*. Edited by Rogelio Díaz-Guerrero. National Hispanic University Press, 1983. Nearly 2,000 English-language terms pertaining to bilingual special education and their Spanish-language equivalents. Each term is also given a brief explanation in Spanish. As the intent of the dictionary is to facilitate communication between teachers and Spanish-speaking parents, these explanations employ lay language.

Films

Chavaría, Elvira. *Chicano Film Guide*. 2d ed. Austin: Mexican American Library Program, Benson Latin American Collection, General Libraries, University of Texas at Austin, 1983. An annotated listing of films on Mexican American history, society, and interests that are available from the Film Library at the University of Texas at Austin.

Chicano Cinema: Research Reviews, and Resources. Thematic issue of *Bilingual Review/La Revista Bilingüe*, vol. 10, no. 2/3 (May–December 1983). Includes thirteen essays on Chicano cinema or the portrayals of Chicanos in the film industry. Also contains reviews of Chicano films and a directory of Chicano/Latino films and distributors.

Foods

Gleason, Carolyn Jackson, and Judi Jaquez. *Handbook of Mexican American Foods: Recipes, Nutritional Analysis, Diabetic Exchanges and Common Practices*. San Antonio: Intercultural Development Research Associates, 1982. Guide to nutritional content, calories, and serving practices of traditional Mexican foods.

Genealogy

Candelaría-Rodríguez, Gloria. *How to Start Your Family History: A Guide for the Beginning Genealogist and Family Historian*. Port Lavaca, TX: Universal Family History, 1982. A step-by-step guide to collecting and arranging genealogical information in developing a family's history, intended for the novice. Geared for researching the Hispanic family in the U.S.

Ryskamp, George R. *Tracing Your Hispanic Heritage*. Riverside, CA: Hispanic Family Research, 1984. A comprehensive guide to techniques, principles, and types of records utilized in tracing Hispanic genealogy. Focuses on ancestry from Spain.

History

Meier, Matt S., and Feliciano Rivera. *Dictionary of Mexican American History*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1981. Identifies people, places, events, organizations, and concepts of significance in Mexican American history. Length of entries varies from brief paragraphs to several pages. Appendices include a chronology of historical events, a glossary of Chicano terms, statistical tables, and the complete text of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

The Tejano Yearbook: 1519–1978. Edited by Philip Ortego y Gasca and Arnold de León. San Antonio: Caravel Press, 1978. Chronicles the history of Hispanics in Texas from the colonial era to contemporary times. A significant historical fact or event is listed for each year.

Immigration

Deutsch, Howard David. *Getting into America: The United States Visa and Immigration Handbook.* New York: Random House, 1984. This guide, written by an attorney specializing in immigration and international law, serves as an introduction to the immigration process and its complexities. The language and tone make it useful for laypersons interested in the regulations and procedures involved in securing legal residency and citizenship in the U.S.

Literature

Chicano Literature: A Reference Guide. Edited by Julio A. Martínez and Francisco A. Lomeli. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1985. A compilation of essays written on Chicano literature and its development by authorities in the field. The essays focus either on individual authors and their literary contributions, or on general aspects of Chicano literature. Considers literary styles, key writers, and social factors influencing the development of Chicano literature.

A Decade of Chicano Literature (1970–1979): Critical Essays and Bibliography. Santa Barbara: Editorial La Causa, 1982. Reviews the development of Chicano literature during the seventies. Contains papers on the standard genres and a comprehensive bibliography for the era.

Names

Woods, Richard D. *Hispanic First Names: A Comprehensive Dictionary of 250 Years of Mexican-American Usage.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1984. Lists common Hispanic first names and their meanings. Includes transliteration, gender, English equivalent, diminutives and variants. A companion guide to following entry.

Woods, Richard D., and Grace Alvarez-Altman. *Spanish Surnames in the Southwest.* Boston: G. K. Hall, 1978. Gives meaning or origin of name, etymology, and translation when appropriate. Generous cross references facilitate access.

Organizations

Caballero, César. *Chicano Organizations Directory.* New York: Neal-Schuman, 1985. Includes nearly 400 organizations, programs, and associations involved with Chicano concerns. Each entry includes address, telephone number, type of organization, date of founding, current officers, purpose, frequency of meetings, and list of publications sponsored by the group. Lists academic Chicano studies programs separately.

Gonzales, Sylvia Alicia. *Hispanic American Voluntary Organizations* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1985. Serves as an introduction to the purpose and history of Hispanic organizations. Entries range from a few paragraphs to several pages.

Statistical Sources

1980 Census of Population: Persons of Spanish Origin by State, 1980. Washington, DC: US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1982. Analysis of the 1980 census indicating the population count of Hispanics. Detailed tables are included on statistical breakdown by type of Spanish origin (Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, other), Hispanics by race, and various rankings by state. Some tables indicate 1970 figures for comparative purposes.

The Hispanic Almanac. Washington, DC: Hispanic Policy Development Project, 1984. Handbook of interpreted statistical data based primarily on the 1980 census count. Major section categories include a national socioeconomic profile of the population group, the top twenty market profiles, Hispanic electorates, and a list of sources and resources.

Demographic Projections of Non-English-Language Background and Limited-English-Proficient Persons to the Year 2000 by State, Age, and Language Group. Rosslyn, VA: Inter-American Research; National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1984. Using 1976 as the base year, this source summarizes the projections of a study investigating non-English-language-background and limited-proficiency persons in the United States. It is laden with charts and tables of projections in the areas of state, age, and language group.

Household and Family Characteristics: March 1984. Washington, DC: US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1985. Reports in tabular form the statistical characteristics of households and families in the United States. Spanish origin is a category listed for comparison in nearly every table.

Studies and Surveys

Spanish USA: A Study of the Hispanic Market in the United States. New York: SIN National Television Network, 1981. Examines the market value of Hispanics in the U.S. Data compiled relate to consumerism, the prevalence of the Spanish language, and perceptions and use of Spanish-language media.

A Survey of Mexican Americans in Austin. Conducted by the Research Department of the *Austin American Statesman*, February, 1982. Austin: 1982. A compilation of statistics and verbatim comments from a survey based on a variety of different topics affecting the Mexican American population of Austin. All respondents were Mexican American. Issues include identity, education, employment, law enforcement, media use, etc.

U.S. Hispanic Market, 1984. Miami: Strategy Research Corporation, 1984. Reports the results of a study intended to assist marketing and media industries. Considers population and demographic profiles, life-style and language, media habits, income and consumption expenditures, and product usage.

Periodicals and Newspapers

Periodicals and newspapers are the best sources of current news and information. They reflect the latest trends and often publish new ideas before they appear in books. The following periodicals, general in nature, report on current events and research of particular interest to Mexican Americans and reflect Mexican American political, social, and cultural life. The beginning dates of publication are given, when known.

Periodicals

Atzlan. Los Angeles: Chicano Studies Center, University of California, 1970– . A scholarly journal focusing on the social sciences and the arts of Mexicans and Mexican Americans. Contains research articles, essays, and book reviews.

Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences. Los Angeles: Spanish Speaking Mental Health Research Center, UCLA, 1979– . An interdisciplinary journal featuring works dealing with mental health of Hispanics in the broadest sense. Articles, case histories, critical reviews, and scholarly notes are included.

Hispanic Link Weekly Report. Washington, DC: Hispanic Link News Service, 1983– . Concerned with current affairs of Hispanics in the U.S. Excellent for updated statistical figures as they become available and for summaries of recent studies and surveys. Emphasizes politics, business, education, and social issues.

Intercambios femeniles. Stanford: National Network of Hispanic Women, Stanford University, 1983– . More than an organizational newsletter, this publication includes brief feature topics of relevance to Hispanic women. Each issue has a different theme: literature, politics, business, etc.

La Red/The Net. Claremont, CA: National Council on Higher Education, 1978– . Provides an overview on current research in the field of Chicano studies.

Newspapers

El Hispano News. Albuquerque, NM. Weekly. Covers regional, national, and international news in Spanish.

El Tecolote. San Francisco. Weekly. Bilingual coverage of Hispanic matters in the Bay Area. Also includes news of Central America and other Latin American countries.

El Sol. Houston. Weekly. Reports on national and international news items of interest to the Hispanic community. Bilingual articles emphasize events in Houston, South Texas, and Mexico.

Mexican American Holidays and Festivities

Gilda Baeza, compiler

These citations are intended for anyone wanting general information on the Mexican American observance of holidays and special occasions. Some of these events are unique to the Hispanic Southwest, whereas others are cultural adaptations from Mexico. Unless otherwise indicated, the works included are written in English and reflect the observances in the United States.

General Sources

Chicano Periodical Index: A Cumulative Index to Selected Periodicals, 1979–1981. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1983.

Chicano Periodical Index: A Cumulative Index to Selected Periodicals between 1967 and 1978. Boston: G. K. Hall, 1981. These two editions index articles from journals focusing on Mexican American studies or Chicano interests. Consult the following subject headings: Cultural Characteristics, Cultural Customs, Christmas, Family, Fiestas, Holidays, Religion, and Virgen de Guadalupe.

COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service. Oakland, CA: Comité de México y Aztlán, May 1972–December 1980. This publication, which is no longer issued, indexes and reprints articles pertaining to Mexican Americans from the following newspapers: *Albuquerque Journal, Arizona Republic, Denver Post, Los Angeles Times, El Paso Times, San Francisco Chronicle*, and the *San Antonio Express*. For articles about community observances of holidays and special occasions, check entries listed under Cultural Activities and Performances and under Holidays in subject index.

Elizondo, Virgil. *Popular Religious Practices of the Mexican American and Catechesis.* San Antonio: Mexican American Cultural Center, 1974. Examines pre-Hispanic and Spanish colonial religious practices and beliefs. From that historical context, expands into contemporary practices among Mexican Americans. Includes observances of Our Lady of Guadalupe, Christmas (including *las posadas*), the Lenten and Easter seasons, and Roman Catholic sacraments (baptism, first communion, etc.).

Heisley, Michael. *An Annotated Bibliography of Chicano Folklore from the Southwestern United States.* Los Angeles: Center for the Study of Comparative Folklore and Mythology, UCLA, 1979. Contains over 1,000 citations to various customs, folklore, and festivities relevant to Chicano culture. Subject index includes Baptisms, Courtship and Marriage, Lenten Customs and Activities, Easter Activities and Ceremonies, among others. Especially useful for entries listed under Pastores.

Fiestas Patrias

The term "*fiestas patrias*" (patriotic holidays) refers to Diez y Seis de Septiembre (September 16) and Cinco de Mayo (May 5).

Bancroft, Hubert Howe. *A History of Mexico.* 6 vols. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft, Co., 1883–1888. The classic, comprehensive multivolume set, chronicling Mexico's history in much detail. Volume 4 includes the independence movement from Spain; volume 6 contains the French intervention period.

De León, Arnoldo. *Las Fiestas Patrias: Biographical Notes on the Hispanic Presence in San Angelo, Texas.* San Antonio: Caravel Press, 1978. A historical inquiry into the development of *las fiestas patrias* in San Angelo and surrounding Concho Valley, from pre-World War II until 1974. The introduction comments on the spirit of Mexican Americans in continuing to celebrate these Mexican holidays.

Gutiérrez de Lara, L., and Edgcumb Pinchon. *The Mexican People: Their Struggle for Freedom.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1914. Detailed description of historical events associated with Mexico's independence efforts. Chapter 5 focuses on the movement for independence from Spain's control. Chapter 16 deals with the French intervention.

Magner, James. *Men of Mexico*. Freeport, NY: Books for Libraries Press, 1968. Describes the life and accomplishments of historical figures involved with Mexico's independence from Spain and the battle against France in Puebla.

Meier, Matt S., and Feliciano Rivera. *Dictionary of Mexican American History*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1981. Succinctly defines and identifies terms, individuals, places, and events that have affected the Mexican American people and their history. Includes entries such as Diez y Seis de Septiembre and Cinco de Mayo, as well as names associated with these historical events: Miguel Hidalgo, Benito Juárez, Ignacio Zaragosa, etc. An added feature is the appendix, which contains the full text (in English and Spanish) of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Melville, Margarita. "The Mexican-American and the Celebration of the Fiestas Patrias: An Ethnohistorical Analysis." *Grito del Sol* 3 (1978): 107–116. A scholarly investigation into the ethnohistorical significance of *fiestas patrias* in the Mexican American community.

Poemas folklóricos y patrióticos: corridos de la Revolución. Mexico City: Libro Mex Editores, 1957. Lyrics to patriotic hymns and poems commemorating legendary and actual Mexican historical figures from the Aztec Cuauhtémoc to the revolutionary Emiliano Zapata. Includes appropriate items for the celebration of *fiestas patrias*. Text in Spanish.

Diez y Seis de Septiembre

Acuña, Rodolfo. *A Mexican American Chronicle*. New York: Litton, 1971, pp. 54–60. The section on the Mexican colonial era (pp. 54–57) describes social and historical conditions that led up to independence from Spain; section on independence era (pp. 58–60) highlights individuals, historical sites, and events from 1810 to 1821, when independence was achieved.

Cotera, Martha. *Profile on the Mexican American Woman*. Austin: Information Systems Development, 1976, pp. 36–40. Describes the participation of women in the independence movement. Highlights the activities of Doña Josefa Ortiz de Domínguez, a crucial ally of the movement.

Crespín, Emil. *Struggle for Independence: Mexico's Rebellion against Spain*. Austin: Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1974. Provides information about historical persons and events of the independence era. Intended for an elementary school audience, it also includes classroom activities to commemorate the holiday.

Nava, Julián, ed. "Miguel Hidalgo as Seen by a Contemporary Mexican Historian." In *The Mexican American in American History*. New York: Littleton, 1973, pp. 40–42. A commentary followed by a reprint of an account by Lucas Alamán, who witnessed the activities of Father Hidalgo. Alamán opposed the independence movement; nevertheless, he was intrigued by the events of the time.

Cinco de Mayo

Cinco de Mayo: al respeto al derecho. Berkeley: Bay Area Bilingual Education League, 1974. Written primarily for the teacher who seeks activities and information to present in the classroom. Includes thematic tales set in contemporary times with Mexican American characters. Bilingual text.

Martínez, Arthur D. "Cinco de Mayo More Than Just Another Day in Mexico." *El Paso Times* (May 5, 1978). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service* (May 1978), p. 169. Brief account of historical events in Mexico on May 5, 1862.

Muñoz, Sergio. "Cinco de Mayo: Looking beyond the Margaritas." *Los Angeles Times* (May 4, 1980). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service* (May 1980), pp. 116–117. A Mexican native reflects on the Mexican American celebration of Cinco de Mayo in the United States.

El Cinco de Mayo: An Exhibit Commemorating the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Victory over the French by the Mexican Army Led by Ignacio Zaragosa. Austin: Latin American Collection, the University of Texas General Libraries, 1962. The captions to the exhibit are useful information and can be supplemented by consulting the sources cited.

Día de los Muertos (Day of the Dead, November 2)

Día de los Muertos: An Illustrated Essay and Bibliography. Santa Barbara: Center for Chicano Studies and Colección Tloque Nahuaque, University Library, University of California, 1983. Essays (English and Spanish versions) focus on the origins of the Día de los Muertos and the traditional foods and activities involved with its celebration. Considers the symbolism associated with the festivities and folk art, particularly that of José Guadalupe Posada. Includes a bibliography with entries that are primarily in Spanish.

El Día de los Muertos: festivales folklóricos de la Raza. Berkeley: Bay Area Bilingual Education League, 197?. Provides background information on All Saints' Day (November 1) and Día de los Muertos. Intended for classroom use in the elementary grades. Includes vocabulary list, recipes for traditional foods served to commemorate the holiday, and suggested classroom activities.

Del Olmo, Frank. "Variation on Halloween Stays Alive." *Los Angeles Times* (October 30, 1978). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service* (October 1978), p. 251. Filled with factual information and depiction of traditional customs; reports on the festivities held in contemporary Los Angeles.

Meisler, Stanley. "Mexico Death Cult Reflects Culture Mix." *Los Angeles Times* (December 9, 1973). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service* (December 1973), pp. 87–88. Considers the forging of Spanish and Aztec cultures, which led to current Mexican philosophy about death and the subsequent observance of Día de los muertos.

Our Lady of Guadalupe (December 12)

De Paola, Tomie. *Our Lady of Guadalupe.* New York: Holiday House, 1980. The tale of the appearance of Our Lady of Guadalupe to the Indian Juan Diego, written and illustrated for children.

Elizondo, Virgilio. *La Morenita: Evangelizer of the Americas.* San Antonio: Mexican American Cultural Center, 1980. A sociohistorical analysis of the apparition of Our Lady of Guadalupe and the resulting devotion by the Hispanic world. Focuses on the implications from a religious and political standpoint.

Gil, Carlos B. "Withstanding Time: The Miracle of the Virgin of Guadalupe." *Nuestro* 7 (1983): 46–47. Begins with an account of the legend and culminates with a reflection on the spiritual phenomenon prevalent among Hispanics.

Christmas Season

Darío Salaz, Rubén. "A Bi-Cultural Christmas." *La Luz* 3 (1975): 11. Discusses Hispanic Christmas season practices: setting *luminarios*, displaying *nacimientos* (Nativity scenes), performing miracle plays (*los pastores* and *las posadas*), preparing traditional foods, and singing Mexican Christmas carols.

Montalvo, Carmelo. *The Pastorela: The Missionary's Medium for Religious Instruction.* San Antonio: Mexican American Cultural Center, 1974. Examines Roman Catholic doctrine in seven Christmas plays, commonly referred to as *pastorelas.*

Las Posadas Heritage Unit: Culturally Democratic Learning Environments, a Bicultural, Bilingual Approach. Follow Through Project, University of California. s.l.: s.n., 1977? Classroom activities that incorporate Mexican American traditions during the holiday season. Topics range from Our Lady of Guadalupe (December 12) to El Día de los Tres Reyes (January 6). Stories, songs, and puppet plays are included.

Ribera Ortega, Pedro. *Christmas in Old Santa Fe.* Santa Fe: The Sunstone Press, 1973. Describes the festivities associated with the month of December. Features Saint Francis and his influence in beginning the practice of setting *el nacimiento, las posadas*, and *los pastores*, the Christmas piñata, and Indian influences in Hispanic New Mexican traditions during the season.

Simmons, Marc. "Indian, Hispanic Traditions Are Fading." *El Paso Times* (December 21, 1980). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Serv-*

ice (December 1980), p. 263. Describes traditional celebrations during the Christmas season in the Indo-Hispanic Southwest.

Virgil, Maurilio E. "Recollections of a New Mexico Christmas." *Nuestro* 6 (1982): 41–44. Although the author recounts customs of Pecos, New Mexico, during the 1920s and 1930s, most of the religious rituals, traditions, and foods described are prevalent in the Southwest during Christmas.

Wedding

"Joyful Customs Reign at Mexican Weddings." *San Antonio Express* (June 15, 1980). Reprinted in *COMEXAZ: News Monitoring Service* (June 1980), pp. 205–206. Wedding rituals such as the use of *el lazo, los cojines*, and *arras* are discussed.

"*La Luz*" Goes to a Hispanic Wedding." *La Luz* 7 (March 1978): 16–20. A photo essay of a traditional wedding mass and reception, which exhibits Spanish colonial and Mexican influences.

Quinceañera

Ercvia, Angela. *Quinceañera*. San Antonio: Mexican American Cultural Center, 197? A bilingual text describes the religious rites and liturgies of a Roman Catholic *quinceañera* celebration.

Folk Dances and Quinceañera. Videorecording. Chicago: Catholic Television Network. 1 cassette. 28 min. Begins with a discussion of Mexican folk dances and ends with a reflection on the festivities involved in a *quinceañera* celebration.

La Quinceañera. Videorecording. s.l., s.m. 1975. 1 cassette. 15 min., 45 sec. Depicts the typical *quinceañera* celebration, which is influenced by Mayan and Toltec traditions.

Statistical Appendix

Economic and Social Progress in Latin America
1987 Report

Special Section:
Labor Force and Employment

Used with permission. Inter-American Development Bank, 1300 New York Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20577

Statistical Profile: Argentina

Area (Km^2)	*2,776,656*
Population Total 1987 (85.3 % urban)	*31,137,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*1.6*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*24.6*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*8.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*36.0*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*69.7*
Percentage of literacy (1982)	*94.2*
Labor force by sector (1980)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*12.9*
Manufacturing	*21.4*
Construction	*10.8*
Commerce	*18.3*
Others	*36.6*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	2.8	2.6	-4.7	5.4	1.6
Agricultural sector	1.9	3.6	-1.7	-2.8	1.8
Manufacturing sector	10.8	4.0	-11.2	12.9	-0.6
Construction sector	-13.1	-20.0	-6.7	9.0	14.8
Public Sector[2]			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	23.6	22.9	27.5	25.9	24.4
Current expenditures	26.8	25.2	25.4	23.2	24.4
Current savings	-3.2	-2.3	2.1	2.7	0.0
Capital expenditures	7.9	6.1	5.6	5.4	6.3
Deficit or surplus	-11.1	-8.4	-3.5	-2.7	-6.3
Domestic financing	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	400.8	565.7	356.1	86.8	151.7[a]
Public sector	669.8	549.4	389.7	68.1	233.7[a]
Private sector	345.5	576.2	345.4	93.2	119.5[a]
Money supply (M1)	362.0	546.7	697.9	70.7	106.6
Consumer prices (annual average)	343.8	626.7	672.2	90.1	131.3
Real wages[3]	24.1	27.1	-12.2	-5.7	-7.6
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[4]	0.01054	0.06779	0.60120	0.94421	2.15083
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	223.4	195.0	220.0	218.0	236.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	86.4	99.0	87.0	75.0	68.7
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-2,440.5	-2,543.0	-963.6	-2,861.4	-4,702.0
Merchandise balance	3,710.5	3,940.1	4,895.0	2,456.6	558.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	7,833.6	8,072.0	8,419.2	6,847.8	6,196.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	4,123.1	4,131.8	3,524.2	4,391.2	5,638.0
Net services	-6,167.1	-6,484.2	-5,858.5	-5,319.2	-5,252.0
Transfers	16.0	1.0	0.0	1.2	-8.0
Capital account (net)	410.5	2,738.8	2,254.1	1,681.2	1,850.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	2,472.6	-143.5	-977.8	874.0	2,209.0
Total external debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	45,111.8	46,878.3	48,293.9	48,796.1	51,638.5
Debt service actually paid	8,562.0	6,263.0	8,269.0	6,135.0	n.a.
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	58.2	57.7	51.0	50.7	52.3

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 333.

** Preliminary estimate

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] Non financial Public Sector, cash flows basis, includes Central Government revenues and expenditures, Social Security and local governments plus the net result of the operations of non-financial public enterprises.

[3] In the manufacturing sector.

[4] In australes, 1 austral = 1,000 "pesos argentinos".

[a] Latest 12 months through June.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Bahamas

Area (Km²)	*13,935*
Population: Total 1987 (61.9 % urban)	*231,000*
Annual growth (1984-86)	*2.0*
Birth rate (1984-86)	*22.3*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1984-86)	*5.6*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984-86)	*28.5*
Life expectancy at birth (1985)	*68.0*
Percentage of literacy (1981)	*93.0*
Labor force by sector (1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*5.0*
Mining	*0.1*
Manufacturing	*5.1*
Construction	*8.3*
Others	*81.5*

	1983	**1984**	**1965**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	6.9	2.5	4.1	2.6	4.4
Agricultural sector	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Manufacturing sector	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Construction sector	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	17.1	16.5	16.7	17.2	17.6
Current expenditures	16.8	16.1	15.7	16.2	16.0
Current savings	0.3	0.4	1.0	1.0	1.5
Capital expenditures	4.2	1.3	2.3	1.5	2.0
Deficit or surplus	-3.9	-0.8	-1.3	-0.5	-0.5
Domestic financing	4.4	1.9	1.4	0.0	0.8
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	7.1	4.0	2.6	6.0	21.7
Public sector	32.1	7.7	-15.1	-15.0	-18.0
Private sector	1.9	3.0	7.6	8.0	23.0
Money supply (M1)	11.1	7.1	9.6	9.0	2.6
Consumer prices (annual average)	4.1	3.9	4.6	5.4	5.8
Real wages	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	91.7	91.9	88.3	84.4	80.3
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-41.4	-52.2	-37.7	-17.2	-103.2
Merchandise balance	-598.4	-606.6	-699.8	-724.2	-824.3
Merchandise exports (FOB)	225.2	262.0	296.8	293.9	273.1
Merchandise imports (FOB)	823.6	868.6	996.6	1,018.1	1,097.4
Net services	554.3	557.3	661.9	707.3	724.7
Transfers	2.7	-2.9	0.2	-0.3	-3.6
Capital account (net)	-0.1	-33.1	-11.4	13.7	-27.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-9.9	-37.4	-24.5	-50.4	60.6
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[2]	263.6	228.5	215.3	249.1	222.0
Debt service actually paid[3]	44.2	55.1	51.0	42.6	49.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	11.1	12.8	12.2	11.2	10.6

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 341.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes short-term debt.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Barbados

Area (Km^2)	*430*
Population: Total 1987 (83.0 % urban)	*270,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*0.3*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*17.8*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*8.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1986)	*10.8*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*72.7*
Percentage of literacy (1984)	*99.0*
Labor force by sector (1983)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*8.4*
Manufacturing	*15.4*
Construction	*9.2*
Others	*67.0*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	0.5	3.6	1.1	5.1	2.2
Agricultural sector	3.9	9.4	-0.5	4.5	-11.2
Manufacturing sector	2.5	1.9	-9.5	5.1	-6.6
Construction sector	-1.0	-1.0	-1.6	7.2	6.0
Tourism sector	-1.9	7.0	-3.0	6.7	14.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	24.4	24.8	25.7	24.6	24.0
Current expenditures	22.0	24.3	25.2	24.0	24.3
Current savings	2.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	-0.3
Capital expenditures	5.7	5.8	5.7	6.6	6.3
Deficit or surplus	-3.3	-5.2	-5.2	-6.0	-6.6
Domestic financing	1.8	1.7	0.2	1.2	2.2
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	7.7	7.1	-0.8	3.4	14.1
Public sector	-4.7	9.5	-16.4	2.8	24.8
Private sector	12.1	6.4	4.1	3.6	10.8
Money supply (M1)	16.1	-2.5	14.5	16.7	17.0
Consumer prices (annual average)	5.3	4.6	3.8	1.3	3.4
Real wages	0.0	5.4	3.8	3.4	1.9
Exchange rate			(Annual average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	2.01	2.01	2.01	2.01	2.00
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	84.4	81.6	80.7	80.5	85.1
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-42.3	19.2	40.3	-5.4	-3.5
Merchandise balance	-299.3	-266.5	-258.7	-278.2	-307.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	272.2	339.7	300.4	244.4	129.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	571.5	606.2	559.1	522.6	436.0
Net services	236.4	271.0	293.5	261.1	289.0
Transfers	20.6	14.7	5.5	11.7	14.5
Capital account (net)	22.3	3.1	46.8	49.6	38.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	10.8	13.5	-22.2	-20.2	-15.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[2]	566.1	389.0	445.8	598.7	642.0
Debt service actually paid[3]	28.1	27.8	43.0	55.1	76.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	4.3	4.5	5.3	7.1	n.a.

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 349.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] Includes short-term debt.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Statistical Profile: Bolivia

Area (Km²)	*1,098,581*
Population Total 1987 (49.6 % urban)	*6,730,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.7*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*44.0*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*15.8*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*124.4*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*50.7*
Percentage of literacy (1985)	*63.2*
Labor force by sector (1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*49.0*
Mining	*3.6*
Manufacturing	*8.7*
Construction	*2.6*
Others	*36.1*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-6.5	-0.3	-0.2	-2.9	2.1
Agricultural sector	-16.4	22.9	9.1	-4.7	-0.2
Mining sector	-4.7	-12.2	-12.6	-15.6	-8.7
Manufacturing sector	-4.6	-14.0	-9.3	2.1	7.2
Construction sector	-1.6	-2.3	-10.9	-7.9	8.1
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	2.6	2.6	7.1	11.5	n.a.
Current expenditures	8.9	31.7	3.6	11.6	n.a.
Current savings	-6.3	-29.1	3.5	-0.1	n.a.
Capital expenditures	0.4	0.5	8.4	0.6	n.a.
Deficit or surplus	-6.7	-29.6	-4.9	-0.6	n.a.
Domestic financing	17.5	30.7	4.8	1.4	n.a.
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	171.4	998.0	11,578.6	100.5	58.9
Public sector[2]	217.7	961.1	n.a.	181.3	-1.9
Private sector	104.0	979.1	13,135.8	180.7	59.7
Money supply (M1)	209.7	1,781.8	5,928.7	84.6	42.1
Consumer prices (annual average)	275.6	1,281.3	11,749.6	276.4	14.6
Real wages	10.5	39.1	-45.6	-39.2	35.0
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[3]	230.0	314.0	441.9	1,922	2,056
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	77.2	53.5	91.1	75.3	77.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	97.0	102.0	108.0	88.0	88.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-137.9	-174.4	-282.1	-399.8	-411.5
Merchandise balance	259.1	312.2	160.6	-50.0	-189.1
Merchandise exports (FOB)	755.1	724.5	623.4	546.6	469.9
Merchandise imports (FOB)	496.0	412.3	462.8	596.6	659.0
Net services	-503.2	-575.1	-522.5	-448.8	-348.1
Transfers	106.2	88.6	79.8	99.0	125.7
Capital account (net)	107.6	301.9	52.2	388.4	320.7
Change in net reserves (- = increase)[4]	-41.6	-115.8	41.6	11.4	90.8
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	3,777.1	3,849.9	4,139.4	4,634.5	4,833.3
Debt service actually paid[5]	310.6	365.8	325.4	205.8	208.7
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	39.8	49.8	46.7	42.5	34.9

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 357.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes increases in public sector participation in the financial system in 1986 and 1987.

[3] 1,000 "pesos bolivianos" per dollar for 1986 and 1987.

[4] 1986 includes a reduction of short-term debits not taken into account in prior years.

[5] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Brazil

Area (Km^2)	*8,511,965*
Population: Total 1987 (72.2 % urban)	*141,452,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.3*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*30.6*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*8.4*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*70.7*
Life expectancy at birth (1980)	*60.1*
Percentage of literacy (1980)	*68.7*
Labor force by sector (1985)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*28.5*
Industry	*22.1*
Commerce	*10.9*
Services	*16.6*
Others	*21.9*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-2.5	5.7	8.0	8.0	2.9
Agricultural sector	1.8	3.2	8.4	-7.9	14.0
Manufacturing sector	-6.1	6.1	8.3	11.3	1.0
Construction sector	-14.1	2.5	11.3	17.7	-3.9
Commerce sector	-5.1	6.4	8.9	9.9	2.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	25.5	23.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Current expenditures	20.2	20.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Current savings	5.2	2.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Capital expenditures	11.2	9.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Deficit or surplus	-4.6	-5.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Domestic financing	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit to private sector	146.1	203.4	249.0	118.8	282.6
Money supply (M1)	97.4	201.9	304.3	306.7	133.3
Consumer prices (annual average)	142.0	196.7	226.9	143.7	231.7
Real minimum wage	-11.4	-14.8	12.2	0.1	-27.5
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[2]	576.2	1,845.4	6,204.9	13.65	36.70
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	107.1	115.3	118.5	123.6	121.2
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	78.0	86.0	84.0	96.0	92.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-6,797.8	55.4	-335.1	-4,476.0	-1,439.0
Merchandise balance	6,485.6	13,114.0	12,411.5	8,349.0	11,161.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	21,923.1	27,050.0	25,538.8	22,393.0	26,213.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	15,437.5	13,936.0	13,127.3	14,044.0	15,052.0
Net services	-13,391.4	-13,229.8	-12,901.9	-12,911.0	-12,700.0
Transfers	108.0	171.2	154.4	86.0	100.0
Capital account (net)	5,542.8	4,950.8	311.7	1,774.0	3,134.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	1,872.9	-5,410.0	522.9	3,242.0	-1,695.0
Public and private external debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt (includes not registered debt)	93,556.0	102,039.0	105,125.0	111,045.0	121,264.0
Debt service actually paid	12,776.3	13,071.7	13,581.1	13,219.0	9,392.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	43.4	39.5	40.3	41.4	21.7

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 365.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] In 1986, a new currency unit was created and was called "cruzado". Its initial equivalency is equal to 1,000 cruzeiros.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Chile

Area (Km^2)	*756,629*
Population: Total 1987 (83.0 % urban)	*12,536,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*1.7*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*24.2*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*6.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*23.7*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*71.0*
Percentage of literacy (1982)	*91.7*
Labor force by sector (Oct.-Dec. 1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*20.6*
Mining	*2.2*
Manufacturing	*13.6*
Construction	*4.7*
Others	*58.9*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-0.7	6.3	2.4	5.7	5.7
Agricultural sector[2]	-2.5	7.5	5.6	8.8	3.2
Mining sector	-1.9	4.4	2.2	1.4	0.0
Manufacturing sector	3.1	9.8	1.2	8.0	5.5
Construction sector	-5.0	4.2	16.1	1.3	10.6
General Government[3]			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	30.3	31.6	31.2	32.5	30.9
Current expenditures	30.5	30.1	28.4	27.5	25.0
Current savings	-0.2	1.5	2.8	5.0	5.9
Capital expenditures	3.7	4.5	5.0	5.8	6.0
Deficit or surplus[4]	-3.6	-2.9	-1.9	-0.5	2.5
Domestic financing	3.6	2.2	-0.6	-2.7	-4.4
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	14.8	31.1	97.5	17.6	19.4
Public sector	67.9	82.9	155.0	15.2	13.1
Private sector	6.3	17.9	74.7	18.9	23.2
Money supply (M1)	26.8	7.6	28.3	44.1	7.6
Consumer prices (annual average)	27.3	19.9	30.7	19.5	19.9
Real wages	-11.0	0.3	-4.5	2.0	0.5
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	78.8	98.5	160.9	192.9	219.4
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	112.1	115.6	145.4	173.2	183.4
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	84.0	78.0	73.0	86.0	91.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-1,115.0	-2,061.3	-1,330.1	-1,091.0	-811.0
Merchandise balance	986.7	293.2	850.9	1,099.3	1,229.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	3,831.3	3,650.1	3,804.5	4,198.8	5,223.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	2,844.6	3,356.9	2,953.6	3,099.5	3,994.0
Net services	-2,197.9	-2,452.8	-2,240.9	-2,273.6	-2,156.0
Transfers	96.2	98.3	59.9	84.4	115.8
Capital account (net)	519.5	2,051.0	1,250.9	886.9	993.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	516.3	-91.2	96.5	251.1	-122.0
Total external debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	18,214.4	19,994.7	20,338.6	20,686.5	20,551.0
Debt service actually paid[5]	2,304.6	2,513.1	2,070.8	1,949.6	1,664.3
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	38.9	48.0	43.5	38.6	26.4

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 373.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes fishing.

[3] Central Government, decentralized entities and municipalities.

[4] Includes capital revenues.

[5] For 1983-86, long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Colombia

Area (Km²)	*1,138,338*
Population: Total 1987 (70.8 % urban)	*29,942,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.2*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*31.0*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*7.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*53.3*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*63.6*
Percentage of literacy (1985)	*82.1*
Labor force by sector (1980)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*34.3*
Manufacturing	*17.7*
Commerce & Finance	*15.9*
Services	*19.4*
Others	*12.7*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	1.6	3.4	3.1	5.1	5.6
Agricultural sector	2.8	1.8	1.6	3.3	4.9
Mining sector	14.2	22.0	38.0	50.1	18.5
Manufacturing sector	1.1	6.0	3.0	6.6	7.0
Construction sector	13.0	6.4	8.6	0.2	2.5
Commerce sector	-0.4	2.0	1.7	3.9	6.2
Public Sector[2]			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	19.4	20.4	22.7	25.6	26.5
Current expenditures	17.0	17.2	17.1	16.7	20.1
Current savings	2.4	3.2	5.6	8.9	6.4
Capital expenditures	10.2	10.1	9.9	8.6	9.0
Deficit or surplus	-7.8	-6.9	-4.3	0.3	-2.6
Domestic financing	3.7	4.4	0.5	-0.3	2.5
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	51.1	32.5	27.2	40.8	37.7
Public sector	212.4	236.3	9.1	28.9	88.3
Private sector	47.5	22.8	30.1	39.2	25.5
Money supply (M1)	25.6	23.4	28.1	22.8	32.9
Consumer prices (annual average)	19.8	16.1	24.0	19.2	23.3
Real wages	6.1	6.0	-3.0	2.5	-1.9
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	78.85	100.82	144.68	194.26	242.61
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	89.3	97.4	112.6	146.6	162.2
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	94.0	101.0	92.0	114.0	86.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-3,006.0	-1,402.2	-1,810.4	422.3	26.9
Merchandise balance	-1,494.5	246.0	-23.4	1,890.0	1,446.7
Merchandise exports (FOB)[3]	2,969.7	4,273.3	3,650.1	5,375.5	5,264.8
Merchandise imports (FOB)	4,464.1	4,027.3	3,673.5	3,485.5	3,818.1
Net services	-1,676.2	-1,946.5	-2,246.9	-2,241.9	-2,421.3
Transfers	164.6	298.3	459.9	774.3	1,001.0
Capital account (net)	1,433.5	944.0	2,235.8	1,105.1	-146.4
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	1,840.8	373.1	-154.3	-1,358.5	-297.0
Total external debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	11,409.2	12,273.4	14,030.9	14,618.6	15,510.0
Debt service actually paid	1,573.0	1,644.0	1,882.0	2,269.0	2,718.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	26.5	22.6	28.7	19.9	22.0

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 381.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes Fondo Nacional de Café.

[3] Does not include purchases of gold by the Bank of the Republic of Colombia but it does include non-monetary gold exports.

Statistical Profile: Costa Rica

Area (Km^2)	*50,900*
Population: Total 1987 (49.6 % urban)	*2,791,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.7*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*30.5*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*6.3*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984)	*18.8*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*73.0*
Percentage of literacy (1981)	*89.8*
Labor force by sector (1983)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*27.7*
Mining	*0.4*
Manufacturing	*16.0*
Construction	*5.4*
Others	*50.5*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	2.9	8.0	0.7	5.4	3.4
Agricultural sector	4.0	10.1	-5.5	4.2	-4.0
Manufacturing sector	1.8	10.4	2.0	7.2	4.8
Construction sector	4.7	23.6	5.6	2.7	4.4
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	16.6	16.6	16.2	15.3	15.7
Current expenditures	16.2	16.3	15.2	14.9	15.4
Current savings	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.3
Capital expenditures	3.9	3.3	2.9	3.8	2.4
Deficit or surplus	-3.6	-3.0	-2.0	-3.3	-2.1
Domestic financing	3.1	1.6	-0.5	2.0	1.5
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit[2]	77.1	16.9	7.6	25.9	16.4
Public sector	110.7	16.4	-0.2	36.5	11.9
Private sector	51.3	17.4	16.0	16.2	21.0
Money supply (M1)	35.9	15.5	13.0	30.6	4.6
Consumer prices (annual average)	32.6	11.9	15.1	11.8	16.8
Real wages	11.4	7.8	9.1	7.5	-1.8
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	41.09	44.53	50.45	55.99	62.78
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	158.6	151.1	149.5	158.8	166.2
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	86.0	90.0	89.0	106.0	91.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-293.4	-153.8	-123.8	-98.4	-243.5
Merchandise balance	-45.8	0.6	-63.8	41.8	-138.9
Merchandise exports (FOB)	853.1	997.1	941.3	1,083.3	1,113.6
Merchandise imports (FOB)	898.9	996.5	1,005.1	1,041.5	1,252.5
Net services	-316.6	-297.8	-281.8	-266.1	-284.8
Transfers	69.0	143.4	221.8	125.9	180.2
Capital account (net)	262.3	-7.3	77.7	117.1	139.5
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-46.2	50.2	-72.4	-81.1	76.9
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	4,250.3	4,037.9	4,419.4	4,445.9	4,518.4
Debt service actually paid[3]	666.3	382.0	483.4	414.6	265.2
Interest payments[4]/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	33.0	26.6	24.9	20.7	19.7

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 389.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices, mining included in manufacturing.

[2] Includes credit rescheduled since 1983.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

[4] Paid and not paid.

Statistical Profile: Dominican Republic

Area (Km^2)	*48,442*
Population: Total 1987 (59.6 % urban)	*6,716,000*
Annual growth (1980-85)	*2.4*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*33.6*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*7.5*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984)	*37.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*64.1*
Percentage of literacy (1981)	*69.4*
Labor force by sector (1981)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*23.6*
Mining	*0.3*
Manufacturing	*12.6*
Construction	*4.5*
Others	*59.0*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	5.3	0.5	-4.2	2.6	8.0
Agricultural sector	3.1	0.0	-5.0	-0.8	2.9
Mining sector	33.0	8.3	-0.1	-11.3	24.1
Manufacturing sector	0.7	-2.4	-7.1	6.9	9.0
Construction sector	20.1	0.0	-15.3	15.5	43.7
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	10.5	11.1	11.8	13.7	15.0
Current expenditures	10.1	9.6	10.3	10.4	7.7
Current savings	0.4	1.5	1.5	3.4	7.3
Capital expenditures	3.1	2.4	3.2	4.0	8.2
Deficit or surplus	-2.7	-0.9	-1.4	0.8	-0.4
Domestic financing	1.7	0.2	0.0	0.0	-0.2
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	24.5	9.1	10.0	28.5	23.0
Public sector	19.4	7.0	-4.0	22.8	21.5
Private sector	13.4	9.9	19.8	50.0	24.3
Money supply (M1)	7.3	50.5	14.4	45.6	34.5
Consumer prices (annual average)	6.9	24.5	37.5	9.7	15.9
Real minimum legal wage	-4.1	-3.2	0.9	3.8	-5.9
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[2]	1.00	1.00	3.11	2.91	3.84
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	108.8	144.5	164.7	150.9	173.9
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	77.0	97.0	80.0	89.0	78.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-418.0	-163.3	-107.6	-119.0	-293.1
Merchandise balance	-493.8	-389.0	-547.5	-544.1	-826.6
Merchandise exports (FOB)	785.2	868.1	738.4	722.1	723.4
Merchandise imports (FOB)	1,279.0	1,257.1	1,285.9	1,266.2	1,550.0
Net services	-139.2	-39.3	83.6	154.2	178.1
Transfers	215.0	265.0	356.3	271.0	355.4
Capital account (net)	268.4	230.7	-6.1	187.5	90.2
Change in net reserves (- = increase)[3]	136.4	-97.0	-44.7	-59.4	202.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	2,896.2	3,056.3	3,276.4	3,288.3	3,413.8
Debt service actually paid[4]	317.3	207.3	243.3	308.7	368.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	24.5	18.1	18.7	18.9	20.3

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 397.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] For 1985-1986 market exchange rate.

[3] For 1987, arrears in interest payments of $237,7 millions are not taken into account.

[4] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Ecuador

Area (Km^2)	*270,670*
Population: Total 1987 (53.2 % urban)	*9,923,000*
Annual growth (1980-85)	*2.9*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*36.8*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*8.1*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*69.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*64.3*
Percentage of literacy (1981)	*85.2*
Labor force by sector (1986**)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*36.0*
Mining	*0.6*
Manufacturing	*10.6*
Construction	*6.9*
Others	*45.9*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-2.8	4.2	4.5	2.8	-3.5
Agricultural sector	-13.9	10.6	9.5	7.6	4.9
Mining sector	28.1	10.0	9.8	6.0	-35.1
Manufacturing sector	-1.4	-1.8	0.3	-0.4	0.6
Construction sector	-7.6	-2.2	1.9	-4.9	3.8
Public Sector			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	31.1	30.0	27.8	24.7	22.0
Current expenditures	23.0	22.1	19.0	21.1	23.0
Current savings	8.1	7.9	8.8	3.6	-1.0
Capital expenditures	7.7	7.5	6.9	8.7	9.7
Deficit or surplus	0.4	0.4	1.9	-5.1	-10.7
Domestic financing	0.1	0.4	-3.3	-0.4	2.1
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	86.7	40.5	9.4	18.9	33.8
Public sector[2]	1.1	-47.1	-109.9	-6.6	12.6
Private sector	66.9	41.4	23.4	16.0	23.7
Money supply (M1)	30.4	42.2	23.8	20.1	32.0
Consumer prices (annual average)	48.4	31.2	28.0	23.0	29.5
Real wages	-18.4	3.5	-0.3	3.9	-7.7
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	44.6	62.9	71.1	95.7	95.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	134.7	132.2	134.2	164.8	194.8
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	82.0	95.0	96.0	75.0	81.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-4.1	-147.9	148.6	-612.9	-1,184.0
Merchandise balance	926.9	1,054.9	1,293.9	554.9	-31.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	2,348.0	2,622.0	2,905.0	2,186.0	2,017.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	1,421.1	1,567.1	1,611.1	1,631.1	2,048.0
Net services	-954.9	-1,222.8	-1,225.3	-1,212.8	-1,228.0
Transfers	23.9	20.0	80.0	45.0	75.0
Capital account (net)	299.0	142.0	-202.9	620.0	1,400.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-109.8	80.7	-24.4	171.6	80.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	7,547.4	8,454.5	8,479.5	8,933.7	9,922.9
Debt service actually paid	905.8	1,029.9	994.0	996.1	950.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	27.4	30.7	25.5	29.6	32.4

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 405.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] For 1986, increase in deposits.

Statistical Profile: El Salvador

Area (Km^2)	20,935
Population: Total 1987 (47.7 % urban)	4,934,000
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	1.0
Birth rate (1980-85)	38.0
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	10.8
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	77.0
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	57.1
Percentage of literacy (1984)	66.9
Labor force by sector (1985)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	40.0
Manufacturing	14.0
Construction	4.5
Commerce	18.0
Others	23.5

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	0.8	2.3	2.0	0.6	2.6
Agricultural sector	-3.2	3.3	-1.1	-3.1	2.5
Mining sector	-2.6	2.7	0.0	2.6	12.8
Manufacturing sector	2.0	1.3	3.7	2.5	3.0
Construction sector	2.0	-5.7	4.6	2.6	14.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	12.4	13.2	13.4	14.4	11.5
Current expenditures	14.8	15.2	13.3	13.0	12.0
Current savings	-2.5	-2.0	0.1	1.4	-0.4
Capital expenditures	6.4	3.9	3.8	4.4	3.6
Deficit or surplus	-3.4	-2.6	-2.7	-1.4	-1.5
Domestic financing	0.6	1.9	0.4	1.2	1.0
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	0.1	15.1	18.6	13.7	8.4
Public sector	-9.3	21.8	10.4	3.8	8.5
Private sector	9.7	10.1	26.2	21.8	8.2
Money supply (M1)	-2.6	14.3	27.5	21.0	0.0
Consumer prices (annual average)	13.1	11.7	22.3	31.9	24.9
Real wages	-12.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	2.50	2.50	2.50	5.00	5.00
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	73.8	66.6	61.2	86.1	71.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	83.0	73.0	69.0	89.0	71.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-37.1	-53.6	-28.7	139.0	137.0
Merchandise balance	-95.5	-188.6	-215.9	-117.3	-333.6
Merchandise exports (FOB)	735.4	725.9	679.0	754.9	572.7
Merchandise imports (FOB)	830.9	914.5	894.9	872.2	906.3
Net services	-213.2	-172.5	-156.3	-136.8	-74.7
Transfers	271.5	307.5	343.5	393.1	545.3
Capital account (net)	102.1	112.3	32.9	-138.8	-86.3
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-23.6	-6.9	-27.0	-63.4	-50.7
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	1,684.4	1,715.3	1,733.7	1,677.9	1,589.3
Debt service actually paid[2]	175.0	204.0	214.0	210.0	198.2
Interest payments/export of			(Percentages)		
goods and NFS	11.9	11.8	10.8	10.6	11.9

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 411.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Guatemala

Area (Km²)	*108,889*
Population. Total 1987 (38.2 % urban)	*8,434,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.9*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*42.7*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*10.5*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1986)	*57.1*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*59.0*
Percentage of literacy (1986)	*56.6*
Labor force by sector (1985)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*58.1*
Manufacturing	*13.6*
Construction	*4.1*
Others	*24.2*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-2.6	0.5	-1.0	0.4	2.5
Agricultural sector	-1.7	1.6	-0.8	0.3	1.8
Mining sector	-12.4	-18.9	-14.4	30.8	2.4
Manufacturing sector	-1.9	0.5	-0.2	0.2	1.5
Construction sector	-26.4	-28.4	-9.5	4.5	7.4
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	8.2	7.0	7.8	8.9	9.4
Current expenditures	8.0	8.1	7.5	8.9	9.4
Current savings	0.2	-1.1	0.2	0.0	-0.1
Capital expenditures	3.5	2.8	2.1	1.9	1.7
Deficit or surplus	-3.3	-3.8	-1.8	-1.5	-0.5
Domestic financing	2.8	2.9	1.4	0.9	0.1
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	14.2	16.9	8.8	-6.0	8.5
Public sector	15.2	26.8	9.9	-25.8	-21.8
Private sector	12.8	11.6	8.9	9.6	26.5
Money supply (M1)	6.0	4.3	56.3	18.1	11.8
Consumer prices (annual average)	6.2	3.4	18.7	37.0	12.3
Real wages	-7.3	-0.7	-13.6	-17.9	8.6
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[2]	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	93.4	92.3	125.6	138.8	145.4
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	85.0	88.0	83.0	108.0	90.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-226.6	-381.5	-240.4	-11.4	-427.1
Merchandise balance	34.2	-51.8	-12.3	173.2	-337.8
Merchandise exports (FOB)	1,090.8	1,131.2	1,065.4	1,047.5	970.7
Merchandise imports (FOB)	1,056.6	1,183.0	1,077.7	874.4	1,308.5
Net services	-291.3	-358.5	-247.9	-259.3	-281.1
Transfers	30.5	28.8	19.8	74.7	191.8
Capital account (net)	315.4	381.6	298.5	54.3	314.6
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-51.8	-14.5	-102.1	-110.4	54.3
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	1,802.4	2,385.3	2,569.9	2,598.1	2,580.6
Debt service actually paid[3]	177.4	257.9	269.6	292.8	387.1
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	8.7	12.4	14.6	17.3	20.6

*** The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 421.**

**** Preliminary estimate.**

[1] At market prices.

[2] Besides the official exchange rate applicable to the debt service payment registered in the Bank of Guatemala until June 1986, and to the primary imports, there are the regulated and bank exchange rates that for 1987 fluctuated around 2,5 quetzales per dollar.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Guyana

Area (Km^2)	*214,970*
Population: Total 1987 (26.8 % urban)	*988,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.0*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*28.5*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*5.9*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984)	*45.0*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*68.2*
Percentage of literacy (1980)	*91.3*
Labor force by sector (1980)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*25.2*
Mining	*4.9*
Manufacturing	*14.5*
Construction	*3.4*
Others	*52.0*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-9.3	2.1	1.0	0.2	0.7
Agricultural sector	-3.7	3.4	0.0	3.7	-5.8
Mining sector	-40.0	21.6	19.4	-8.1	10.3
Manufacturing sector	-16.4	-5.9	-3.1	0.0	-7.5
Construction sector	-4.7	0.0	0.0	-1.6	5.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	38.9	38.2	39.6	46.1	42.7
Current expenditures	66.0	75.0	57.6	51.1	55.8
Current savings	-27.1	-36.7	-18.0	-5.0	-13.1
Capital expenditures	19.0	18.3	17.6	16.1	19.1
Deficit or surplus[2]	-46.0	-94.0	-33.8	-58.8	-29.0
Domestic financing	40.2	88.3	31.8	54.0	26.1
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit[3]	28.4	34.2	21.4	18.6	29.0
Public sector	29.6	29.2	35.2	17.5	27.1
Private sector	20.2	21.7	12.2	29.0	45.0
Money supply (M1)	16.3	22.0	19.4	19.6	45.3
Consumer prices (annual average)	15.0	25.1	15.0	7.9	35.0
Real wages	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	3.00	3.83	4.25	4.30	10.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	75.3	77.8	70.9	73.3	132.1
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	77.1	81.8	77.4	88.0	n.a.
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-157.4	-94.5	-96.5	-88.5	-43.5
Merchandise balance	-32.4	15.3	5.0	-2.4	43.6
Merchandise exports (FOB)	193.4	216.9	214.0	238.7	242.2
Merchandise imports (FOB)	225.8	201.6	209.1	241.1	198.6
Net services	-123.9	-114.4	-96.3	-92.9	-91.6
Transfers	-1.1	4.6	-5.2	6.8	4.5
Capital account (net)	99.5	131.3	105.4	133.1	41.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)[4]	-0.3	-24.0	-4.6	-2.5	2.1
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[5]	955.9	964.1	1,048.3	1,127.1	1,130.0
Debt service actually paid[6]	52.2	38.5	25.0	26.3	35.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	23.6	17.2	14.7	19.2	19.1

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 429.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At factor cost.

[2] In 1984 and 1986 includes equity contribution to public entities.

[3] For 1987, June 1987 divided by June 1986.

[4] Does not include arrears in interest payments.

[5] Includes short-term debt.

[6] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Haiti

Area (Km^2)	*27,750*
Population: Total 1987 (25.9 % urban)	*6,147,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*1.8*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*35.4*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*13.8*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*108.2*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*52.7*
Percentage of literacy (1983)	*37.0*
Labor force by sector (1982)	**(Percentages)**
Agriculture	*65.4*
Mining	*1.0*
Manufacturing	*6.5*
Construction	*1.2*
Others	*25.9*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.6	-0.6
Agricultural sector	-3.7	3.5	0.6	2.4	0.0
Manufacturing sector	5.5	-5.9	-2.9	-2.8	-3.8
Construction sector	6.3	1.7	12.7	-6.1	0.6
General Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	11.6	11.7	13.3	11.9	13.2
Current expenditures	20.5	20.6	19.9	15.8	18.3
Current savings	-8.9	-8.8	-6.6	-3.9	-5.1
Capital expenditures	2.7	2.3	2.2	1.6	2.2
Deficit or surplus	-3.8	-7.4	-3.5	-2.1	-1.5
Domestic financing	1.5	4.5	1.9	1.3	0.4
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	13.0	14.1	10.2	-0.3	5.6
Public sector	32.0	17.0	13.4	-1.3	4.2
Private sector	-12.7	8.4	3.0	2.2	9.0
Money supply (M1)	-2.2	16.3	11.5	14.7	11.6
Consumer prices (annual average)	8.7	8.0	8.4	7.7	-10.4
Real wages	-7.8	-7.2	4.6	-7.9	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	84.1	80.4	74.7	78.5	86.1
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	66.0	83.0	88.0	101.0	84.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-141.1	-123.6	-96.4	-70.4	-70.0
Merchandise balance	-166.4	-143.4	-123.8	-140.3	-95.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	185.5	211.6	227.5	197.7	205.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	351.9	355.0	351.3	338.0	300.0
Net services	-84.5	-101.5	-120.5	-87.4	-125.0
Transfers	109.8	121.3	147.9	157.3	150.0
Capital account (net)	61.5	65.3	26.2	25.6	89.2
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-22.3	-22.4	16.4	20.5	-19.2
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[2]	570.9	659.4	697.5	705.1	745.4
Debt service actually paid[3]	14.1	17.7	20.7	18.8	24.0
Interest payments/export of			(Percentages)		
goods and NFS	2.4	5.2	7.4	6.8	n.a.

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 437.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes short-term debt.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Honduras

Area (Km²)	*112,088*
Population: Total 1987 (41.4 % urban)	*4,679,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*3.4*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*43.9*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*10.1*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1983)	*78.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*59.9*
Percentage of literacy (1982)	*59.7*
Labor force by sector (1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*53.1*
Mining	*0.4*
Manufacturing	*13.2*
Construction	*4.3*
Others	*29.0*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-0.2	2.8	3.2	2.7	4.2
Agricultural sector	-0.7	1.3	2.9	1.7	7.2
Mining sector	8.3	11.5	2.3	-2.2	-13.8
Manufacturing sector	5.3	8.4	-2.2	0.5	3.9
Construction sector	-6.6	-1.3	-1.8	-8.3	2.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	13.3	15.1	15.6	15.6	16.3
Current expenditures	16.4	16.7	17.8	17.9	18.7
Current savings	-3.1	-1.6	-2.2	-2.3	-2.4
Capital expenditures	7.2	9.8	6.8	5.6	4.3
Deficit or surplus	-9.8	-9.5	-7.4	-6.2	-5.7
Domestic financing	4.8	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.7
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	19.8	9.5	9.1	7.7	15.0
Public sector	44.7	6.0	2.9	6.6	14.9
Private sector	13.1	10.8	11.5	8.2	15.1
Money supply (M1)	14.3	4.1	1.6	8.6	17.9
Consumer prices (annual average)	8.3	4.7	3.4	4.4	2.5
Real wages	-8.5	-4.7	-4.7	-4.4	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	84.7	82.0	80.6	82.7	85.4
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	93.0	96.0	82.0	94.0	78.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-219.3	-316.4	-210.6	-137.2	-176.6
Merchandise balance	-57.5	-147.8	-74.1	16.7	-31.4
Merchandise exports (FOB)	698.7	737.0	805.1	891.2	862.5
Merchandise imports (FOB)	756.2	884.8	879.2	874.5	893.9
Net services	-206.2	-248.6	-259.9	-282.9	-289.2
Transfers	44.5	80.0	123.4	129.0	144.0
Capital account (net)	158.9	348.1	274.7	140.0	213.5
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	47.3	-10.7	-11.1	-28.3	-36.9
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	2,087.7	2,327.2	2,701.2	2,858.9	2,949.7
Debt service actually paid[2]	179.1	174.1	188.9	226.0	247.7
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS	16.3	15.9	(Percentages) 15.7	15.3	15.6

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 444.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] Long-term exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Jamaica

Area (Km²)	*10,962*
Population: Total 1987 (49.6 % urban)	*2,391,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*1.5*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*28.1*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*6.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984)	*13.2*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*73.0*
Percentage of literacy (1982)	*73.1*
Labor force by sector (1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*33.7*
Mining	*0.7*
Manufacturing	*13.6*
Construction	*4.0*
Others	*48.0*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	2.3	-0.9	-4.5	2.1	4.9
Agricultural sector	7.2	9.3	-3.4	-2.0	1.1
Mining sector	0.6	0.7	-19.5	6.5	4.8
Manufacturing sector	1.9	-5.0	0.9	3.1	4.7
Construction sector	6.7	-7.1	-14.2	3.3	15.2
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	25.7	28.9	28.2	33.2	32.8
Current expenditures	34.3	30.2	28.9	28.3	28.6
Current savings	-8.6	-1.4	-0.7	4.9	4.2
Capital expenditures	7.3	4.8	5.3	7.6	7.6
Deficit or surplus[2]	-15.9	-6.2	-6.0	-2.8	-0.1
Domestic financing	14.8	2.2	-0.8	-0.9	n.a.
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	33.9	6.5	1.5	23.3	7.4
Public sector	37.6	2.9	-0.7	26.8	-6.0
Private sector	27.3	12.5	5.6	21.8	32.0
Money supply (M1)	21.3	14.5	19.6	37.8	12.7
Consumer prices (annual average)	12.5	28.9	23.0	14.4	7.7
Real wages	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	2.0	4.1	5.6	5.5	5.5
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	121.3	141.7	163.7	147.1	141.2
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	75.1	87.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-354.9	-332.3	-301.4	-33.7	-122.1
Merchandise balance	-438.5	-334.7	-435.6	-247.9	-374.2
Merchandise exports (FOB)	685.7	702.3	568.6	589.5	673.5
Merchandise imports (FOB)	1,124.2	1,037.0	1,004.2	837.4	1,047.7
Net services	-18.0	-118.3	-87.0	66.1	72.7
Transfers	101.6	120.7	221.2	148.1	179.4
Capital account (net)	222.8	417.7	313.7	24.4	324.3
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	132.1	-22.5	-29.3	24.0	-202.2
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	3,329.8	3,555.3	3,806.6	3,854.3	n.a.
Debt service actually paid[3]	285.1	281.9	416.8	444.3	n.a.
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	16.4	21.1	26.7	21.3	20.5

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 453.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] For 1987, the deficit is 0.1% as capital revenues were 3,3% of GDP.

[3] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Mexico

Area (Km²)	*1,967,183*
Population. Total 1987 (69.6 % urban)	*83,039,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.6*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*33.9*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*7.1*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*49.9*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*65.7*
Percentage of literacy (1980)	*87.9*
Labor force by sector (1980)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*37.6*
Mining	*0.9*
Manufacturing	*19.0*
Construction	*5.8*
Others	*36.7*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Producción[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-4.2	3.6	2.6	-4.0	1.4
Agricultural sector	2.0	2.7	3.8	-2.7	0.9
Mining sector	-0.9	2.2	0.1	-4.3	4.1
Manufacturing sector	-7.8	5.0	6.0	-5.7	2.5
Construction sector	-19.2	5.4	2.3	-10.2	1.5
Public Sector			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	34.3	33.0	32.6	30.3	30.0
Current expenditures	34.5	32.9	34.0	38.0	38.5
Current savings	0.2	0.1	-1.4	-7.7	-8.5
Capital expenditures	7.8	6.9	6.3	6.0	5.5
Budget deficit or surplus	-7.6	-6.8	-7.7	-13.7	-14.0
Financial deficit or surplus[2]	-9.0	-8.7	-10.0	-16.0	-15.8
Domestic financing	5.3	6.8	9.4	14.2	11.6
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit[3]	51.4	47.6	78.2	114.8	127.4
Public sector	52.3	36.2	85.8	129.4	117.9
Private sector	48.7	87.6	59.0	72.1	154.2
Money supply (M1)	41.3	63.0	51.2	64.4	129.7
Consumer prices (annual average)	101.9	65.5	57.7	86.2	131.8
Minimum real wage[4]	-18.0	-7.4	-1.3	-7.9	-6.3
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	120.2	167.8	257.0	611.4	1,419.4
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	123.7	102.6	98.5	145.2	155.5
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	77.4	76.1	72.0	51.9	57.4
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	5,414.5	4,180.0	1,193.0	-1,622.1	3,881.2
Merchandise balance	13,764.4	12,896.7	8,449.7	4,576.5	8,433.3
Merchandise exports (FOB)	22,329.3	24,185.1	21,667.4	16,027.8	20,656.2
Merchandise imports (FOB)	8,564.8	11,288.4	13,217.7	11,451.3	12,222.9
Net services	-8,652.5	-9,127.7	-8,250.7	-6,689.1	-5,219.9
Transfers	302.5	411.0	994.0	490.3	667.7
Capital account (net)	-2,344.3	-1,048.6	-2,116.0	1,539.2	784.9
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-2,021.5	-2,134.1	2,762.7	119.9	-5,521.5
Total external debt[5]			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	92,991.0	96,544.0	96,910.0	101,555.9	103,305.0
Interest payments	10,529.0	12,158.0	10,648.0	8,342.1	8,115.9
Debt service actually paid	13,949.0	13,849.0	12,423.0	11,142.5	11,368.5
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	37.3	38.8	36.6	37.7	29.4

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 461.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes deficit of non-controlled public sector and financial intermediaries.

[3] Granted to non-financial sectors denominated in national and foreign currency.

[4] Annual variation deflated by the consumer price index.

[5] Includes long and short term debt with and without guarantee.

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Statistical Profile: Nicaragua

Area (Km^2)	*139,000*
Population: Total 1987 (58.7 % urban)	*3,501,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*3.4*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*44.2*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*9.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*61.7*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*59.8*
Percentage of literacy (1986)	*74.0*
Labor force by sector (1987)	(Percentages)
Agricultural	*37.6*
Non-agricultural	*62.4*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	4.6	-1.6	-4.1	-0.6	1.7
Agricultural sector	5.8	-5.3	-4.8	-6.9	2.0
Mining sector	1.9	-23.1	-21.3	31.5	3.0
Manufacturing sector	5.6	0.4	-4.7	1.9	1.0
Construction sector	16.7	8.7	10.0	0.0	14.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	30.9	34.9	32.1	32.0	29.9
Current expenditures	38.2	43.3	48.0	41.4	40.7
Current savings	-7.3	-8.4	-15.8	-9.4	-10.8
Capital expenditures	25.3	16.0	6.9	8.1	4.5
Deficit or surplus	-30.0	-22.5	-21.3	-16.5	-14.8
Domestic financing	24.9	19.2	13.7	15.2	14.6
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	37.0	40.8	107.0	142.2	424.0
Public sector	58.6	54.2	120.2	107.7	429.9
Private sector	3.5	9.0	62.3	299.8	407.8
Money supply (M1)	64.7	83.1	179.4	256.7	643.7
Consumer prices (annual average)	31.1	35.4	219.5	681.6	910.7
Real wages	-12.7	-5.1	-14.3	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	10.05	10.05	28.00	70.00	70.00
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)[2]	68.55	60.91	48.31	87.07	n.a.
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	83.0	105.0	97.0	109.0	86.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-561.9	-665.3	-745.4	-788.3	-720.8
Merchandise balance	-349.3	-414.2	-540.0	-537.8	-538.9
Merchandise exports (FOB)	428.8	385.4	297.6	244.2	299.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	778.1	799.6	837.6	782.0	837.9
Net services	-291.8	-341.1	-300.2	-362.9	-323.5
Transfers	79.2	90.0	94.8	112.4	141.6
Capital account (net)	622.4	782.4	848.4	868.6	632.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-18.2	-246.7	-19.0	-6.4	152.8
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[3]	4,016.2	4,875.5	5,746.5	6,370.2	6,842.9
Debt service actually paid[4]	82.5	64.5	42.3	32.0	33.5
			(Percentages)		
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS	45.3	60.8	69.3	90.3	73.3

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 469.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Average exchange rates.

[3] Includes short and long-term debt.

[4] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Panama

Area (Km²)	*77,082*
Population: Total 1987 (50.5 % urban)	*2,274,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.2*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*28.0*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*5.4*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1986)	*22.7*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*71.0*
Percentage of literacy (1986)	*85.8*
Labor force by sector (1985)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*29.4*
Manufacturing	*10.7*
Construction	*5.3*
Commerce	*13.8*
Others	*40.8*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	0.4	-0.4	4.7	2.9	2.9
Agricultural sector	3.1	1.7	5.0	-2.2	8.2
Manufacturing sector	-1.8	-0.5	2.0	2.6	4.5
Construction sector	-31.2	-17.4	0.0	7.4	-6.6
Transportation and communication sector	8.8	-3.3	6.8	0.8	2.9
Public Sector			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues[2]	32.1	31.4	31.4	31.6	30.1
Current expenditures	28.4	29.2	28.0	27.9	28.0
Current savings	3.7	2.2	3.4	3.7	2.1
Capital expenditures	9.3	8.0	4.5	4.9	3.5
Deficit or surplus	-5.6	-5.8	-1.2	-1.2	-1.4
Domestic financing	2.5	3.8	1.1	-0.3	1.4
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	5.4	6.5	4.2	6.8	3.9
Public sector	26.0	20.9	7.2	-1.3	n.a.
Private sector	0.0	1.8	3.0	10.1	n.a.
Money supply (M1)	-1.8	2.2	7.5	12.9	n.a.
Consumer prices (annual average)	2.1	1.6	1.0	-0.1	1.0
Real wages	2.8	2.0	4.1	0.7	-0.4
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	95.3	92.4	97.8	99.7	102.7
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	95.0	103.5	103.9	107.2	103.8
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	415.5	99.3	271.6	442.1	358.4
Merchandise balance[3]	-1,015.6	-1,053.9	-990.7	-817.3	-784.7
Merchandise exports (FOB)[3]	303.5	258.2	301.2	326.9	339.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)[3]	1,319.1	1,312.1	1,291.9	1,144.2	1,123.7
Net services	1,386.8	1,063.4	1,177.2	1,193.6	1,063.9
Transfers	44.3	89.6	85.1	65.6	79.2
Capital account (net)	137.2	70.0	-134.3	139.8	-400.2
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	11.8	83.6	125.0	-60.5	41.8
Total External Debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	4,392.1	4,418.7	4,731.4	4,787.3	4,761.3
Debt service actually paid[4]	582.4	655.4	540.4	575.1	647.9
			(Percentages)		
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS	16.7	18.0	18.3	20.0	19.7

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 477.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes net revenues from non-consolidated public sector.

[3] Excluding reexportation from the Free Port of Colon, whose net value added is included in the service balance.

[4] Includes public debt only.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Paraguay

Area (Km²)	*406,752*
Population: Total 1987 (40.6 % urban)	*3,922,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*3.2*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*35.8*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*6.8*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*53.0*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*66.4*
Percentage of literacy (1984)	*92.0*
Labor force by sector (1982)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*46.9*
Mining	*0.1*
Manufacturing	*13.6*
Construction	*7.5*
Others	*31.9*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-3.0	3.1	4.0	0.0	4.3
Agricultural sector	-2.4	5.9	4.6	-6.1	7.0
Manufacturing sector	-4.2	4.5	5.0	-1.4	3.5
Construction sector	-5.7	-2.4	-1.0	1.0	2.0
Commerce sector	-3.1	1.8	4.7	3.3	3.6
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	8.0	8.0	7.9	7.8	8.1
Current expenditures	8.9	7.6	7.0	6.6	6.5
Current savings	-0.9	0.4	0.9	1.2	1.6
Capital expenditures	1.7	3.3	2.5	0.7	0.5
Deficit or surplus	-2.6	-2.9	-1.5	0.5	1.1
Domestic financing	1.9	1.9	0.8	-0.7	1.5
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	23.1	20.0	17.7	32.1	23.1
Public sector	228.8	28.6	52.2	20.9	8.3
Private sector	2.6	17.3	9.2	35.8	27.4
Money supply (M1)	22.7	32.0	25.8	27.9	54.7
Consumer prices (annual average)	13.5	20.3	25.2	31.7	21.8
Real wages	-7.1	-3.6	-2.1	-4.3	12.3
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[2]	265.0	354.0	503.0	633.0	741.0
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	118.3	131.0	144.8	170.7	174.5
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	90.0	144.0	121.0	118.0	121.0
Balance of payments[3]			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-248.0	-317.4	-225.4	-358.9	-350.0
Merchandise balance	-225.4	-287.8	-191.5	-162.4	-134.8
Merchandise exports (FOB)	326.0	361.3	324.4	573.4	800.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	551.4	649.1	515.9	735.8	934.8
Net services	-28.6	-39.0	-41.4	-207.5	-226.7
Transfers	6.2	9.3	7.5	11.0	11.5
Capital account (net)	287.3	285.9	59.9	227.4	183.1
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	52.9	13.7	128.3	128.1	148.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	1,407.1	1,494.9	1,779.4	1,960.5	2,009.0
Debt service actually paid[4]	101.1	138.4	162.6	217.3	292.5
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	13.3	14.4	17.4	18.2	14.8

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 485.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Includes duty free transactions.

[3] Starting 1986, includes official market and duty free transactions.

[4] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Peru

Area (Km²)	*1,280,219*
Population: Total 1987 (68.3 % urban)	*20,727,000*
Annual growth rate (1980–85)	*2.6*
Birth rate (1980–85)	*36.7*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980–85)	*10.7*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980–85)	*98.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980–85)	*58.6*
Percentage of literacy (1986)	*86.0*
Labor force by sector (1982)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*35.2*
Mining	*1.8*
Manufacturing	*12.8*
Construction	*3.7*
Others	*46.5*

	1983	**1984**	**1985**	**1986**	**1987****
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-12.3	4.8	2.5	8.5	6.7
Agricultural sector	-10.8	11.8	3.1	4.5	5.1
Mining sector	-9.8	4.8	4.8	-4.0	-2.3
Manufacturing sector	-16.9	5.5	6.8	14.9	11.8
Construction sector	-20.8	0.8	-10.2	24.3	15.8
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	11.5	13.1	14.1	12.2	9.1
Current expenditures	15.6	14.0	13.8	12.9	12.5
Current savings	-4.1	-0.9	0.4	-0.7	-3.4
Capital expenditures	3.1	3.2	2.5	3.0	2.3
Deficit or surplus	-7.2	-4.1	-2.0	-3.6	-5.7
Domestic financing	3.3	0.8	-0.5	2.3	4.9
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	104.1	104.1	77.1	89.3	140.5
Public sector	132.3	63.5	-14.6	202.7	306.4
Private sector	93.8	121.8	106.6	74.2	102.1
Money supply (M1)	91.7	128.0	229.6	107.2	140.5
Consumer prices (annual average)	111.1	110.2	163.4	77.9	85.8
Real wages	-2.3	-8.9	-12.4	15.5	7.4
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	1.63	3.47	10.98	13.95	16.840
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	101.3	107.5	126.6	113.4	97.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	96.0	94.0	99.0	86.0	95.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-871.2	-224.5	116.8	-1,014.8	-1,317.0
Merchandise balance	295.1	1,007.6	1,168.7	-3.5	-344.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	3,018.9	3,148.8	2,977.0	2,508.2	2,559.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	2,723.8	2,141.2	1,808.3	2,511.7	2,903.0
Net services	-1,385.4	-1,389.9	-1,185.9	-1,107.5	-1,075.0
Transfers	219.1	157.8	134.0	96.2	102.0
Capital account (net)	714.1	1,030.1	337.1	782.5	487.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	32.1	-254.2	-159.4	288.6	830.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	12,300.3	13,104.7	13.573.8	15,273.2	16,174.3
Debt service actually paid[2]	1,116.6	999.4	874.1	698.2	625.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	29.8	33.3	28.3	25.9	21.5

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 493.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Suriname

Area (Km²)	*163,820*
Population: Total 1987 (64.7 % urban)	*357,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*1.1*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*29.5*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*6.1*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1984)	*27.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*68.0*
Percentage of literacy (1980)	*80.2*
Labor force by sector (1987)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*16.7*
Mining	*4.0*
Manufacturing	*10.6*
Construction	*2.9*
Others	*44.2*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP (market prices)	-3.3	-2.4	-0.2	0.6	-6.6
Agricultural sector	-8.8	3.8	1.4	3.9	-3.3
Mining sector	-25.1	28.0	12.9	10.7	-45.0
Manufacturing sector	-9.5	-3.2	6.5	-1.4	-15.7
Construction sector	-9.7	3.9	-11.3	-11.3	-5.2
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	28.5	27.9	27.5	27.2	31.4
Current expenditures	39.4	39.8	45.6	50.8	60.8
Current savings	-10.9	-11.9	-18.0	-23.6	-29.4
Capital expenditures	6.4	4.3	3.0	1.9	0.7
Deficit or surplus	-17.0	-16.0	-20.8	-25.2	-30.1
Domestic financing	17.0	16.0	20.8	25.2	29.8
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	41.6	34.9	35.7	31.8	26.9
Public sector	185.1	68.4	47.6	39.9	32.0
Private sector	3.2	10.1	6.2	6.9	6.0
Money supply (M1)	8.0	26.9	52.5	39.8	21.3
Consumer prices (annual average)	4.4	3.7	10.9	18.7	53.3
Real wages	6.3	5.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	1.79	1.79	1.79	1.79	1.79
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	87.5	85.5	79.0	72.1	59.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	79.8	102.9	103.4	113.5	n.a.
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-160.6	-73.2	-38.1	-19.8	-22.0
Merchandise balance	-34.7	-12.8	-0.9	33.1	-7.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	367.4	374.5	335.6	342.6	291.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	402.1	387.3	336.5	309.5	298.0
Net services	-120.4	-56.2	-35.5	-53.4	-18.0
Transfers	-5.5	-4.2	-1.6	0.5	3.0
Capital account (net)	49.5	7.3	22.8	-15.3	-15.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	108.9	51.6	8.4	24.6	14.0
External public debt[2]			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	29.9	33.1	47.7	69.6	71.0
Debt service actually paid	2.7	3.4	3.4	5.9	6.4
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.5

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 501.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] Medium and long-term.

n.a. Not available.

Statistical Profile: Trinidad & Tobago

Area (Km²)	*5,128*
Population: Total 1987 (51.8 % urban)	*1,144,000*
Annual growth rate (1980–85)	*1.6*
Birth rate (1980–85)	*25.4*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1983)	*7.0*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1983)	*15.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980–85)	*68.7*
Percentage of literacy (1980)	*97.2*
Labor force by sector (1986)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*11.2*
Mining	*1.9*
Manufacturing	*14.2*
Construction	*13.6*
Others	*59.1*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-9.2	-10.6	-5.6	-6.4	-3.7
Agricultural sector	-3.4	2.4	9.5	1.1	4.2
Mining sector	-9.8	4.4	2.6	-2.4	-4.4
Manufacturing sector	-1.2	-3.8	-3.8	3.7	6.9
Construction sector	-18.0	-18.9	-19.6	-19.6	-20.4
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	35.5	35.0	35.4	30.1	28.4
Current expenditures	33.8	33.2	33.5	32.4	31.1
Current savings	1.8	1.8	1.9	-2.3	-2.7
Capital expenditures	13.8	10.6	9.1	5.6	4.4
Deficit or surplus	-12.0	-8.8	-7.2	-7.9	-7.1
Domestic financing	10.8	6.3	5.7	9.7	7.1
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit[2]	101.3	34.3	1.6	12.2	11.9
Public sector	56.1	88.1	217.0	722.2	48.0
Private sector[2]	16.4	7.1	-3.8	1.2	3.0
Money supply (M1)	-8.1	-8.3	1.1	-11.5	-1.9
Consumer prices (annual average)	16.8	13.3	7.7	7.7	10.8
Real wages[3]	5.7	-0.2	-2.8	-5.5	-7.1
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)[4]	2.4	2.4	2.4	3.6	3.6
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	74.6	66.5	64.3	93.0	84.1
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	78.9	80.7	73.8	65.0	70.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-1,003.2	-522.7	-90.4	-441.8	-250.4
Merchandise balance	-206.9	405.8	756.1	153.7	239.3
Merchandise exports (FOB)	2,026.5	2,110.7	2,110.7	1,363.1	1,399.8
Merchandise imports (FOB)	2,233.4	1,704.9	1,354.6	1,209.4	1,160.5
Net services	-715.6	-845.2	-787.2	-545.4	-449.9
Transfers	-80.7	-83.3	-59.3	-50.1	-39.8
Capital account (net)	392.2	-122.9	20.5	-196.5	-26.1
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	872.9	693.1	301.3	721.5	249.7
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt[5]	1,298.0	1,073.8	1,236.4	1,427.2	1,691.0
Debt service actually paid[6]	227.2	127.0	183.8	228.3	245.5
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	8.2	8.5	10.0	10.9	12.0

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 509.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost.

[2] For 1987, September 1987 over September 1986.

[3] For 1987, it refers to the period January–June.

[4] On December 17, 1985 the official exchange rate changed from 2.40 to 3.60 per dollar except for specific imports. On January 23rd, 1987 the exchange rate for these specific imports was unified at this same level.

[5] Includes short-term debt.

[6] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Uruguay

Area (Km²)	*176,215*
Population: Total 1987 (85.0 % urban)	*3,057,000*
Annual growth rate (1980–85)	*0.7*
Birth rate (1980–85)	*19.5*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980–85)	*10.2*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980–85)	*37.6*
Life expectancy at birth (1980–85)	*70.3*
Percentage of literacy (1983)	*96.3*
Labor force by sector (1982)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*17.0*
Manufacturing	*20.3*
Construction	*5.8*
Others	*58.9*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-5.9	-1.5	0.3	6.6	4.9
Agricultural sector	2.1	-6.8	4.5	6.7	0.8
Manufacturing sector	-7.0	2.8	-1.6	12.1	11.0
Construction sector	-33.6	-11.0	-30.1	-1.7	10.4
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	16.3	13.8	15.4	15.2	15.9
Current expenditures	17.9	17.2	15.5	15.1	15.4
Current savings	-1.6	-3.3	-0.1	0.1	0.5
Capital expenditures	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.8
Deficit or surplus	-3.7	-5.0	-1.9	-1.4	-1.3
Domestic financing	4.2	5.6	3.2	1.4	1.3
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	2.6	65.7	83.4	37.1	64.4
Public sector	143.4	79.5	35.7	62.6	34.5
Private sector	13.1	50.9	67.6	57.1	64.5
Money supply (M1)	11.4	57.0	101.3	77.6	67.3
Consumer prices (annual average)	49.2	55.3	72.2	76.4	63.6
Real wages	-20.7	-9.1	14.1	6.7	4.7
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	34.5	56.1	101.5	152.0	226.8
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	139.0	142.7	147.6	144.6	147.6
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	94.0	98.0	89.0	103.0	105.8
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	-60.0	-129.0	-107.9	91.0	-124.4
Merchandise balance	416.7	192.4	178.2	296.8	109.2
Merchandise exports (FOB)	1,156.4	924.6	853.6	1,087.8	1,189.1
Merchandise imports (FOB)	739.7	733.2	675.4	791.0	1,079.9
Net services	-487.7	-331.5	-297.0	-231.0	-241.6
Transfers	11.0	10.0	10.9	25.2	8.0
Capital account (net)	284.5	188.0	-77.4	-13.1	297.5
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	70.3	85.2	-64.4	-287.4	-44.5
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	3,297.0	3,298.3	3,883.6	3,753.8	4,048.0
Debt service actually paid[2]	346.3	446.2	481.8	355.5	416.0
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	24.8	34.8	34.3	24.7	23.2

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 516.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] GDP at market prices, sector of origin at factor cost. Mining included in manufacturing.

[2] Long-term debt exclusively.

Statistical Profile: Venezuela

Area (Km²)	*898,805*
Population: Total 1987 (78.5 % urban)	*18,272,000*
Annual growth rate (1980-85)	*2.9*
Birth rate (1980-85)	*33.0*
Mortality per 1000 inhabitants (1980-85)	*5.6*
Infant mortality per 1000 live births (1980-85)	*38.7*
Life expectancy at birth (1980-85)	*69.0*
Percentage of literacy (1984)	*89.5*
Labor force by sector (1987)	(Percentages)
Agriculture	*13.6*
Mining	*1.0*
Manufacturing	*17.0*
Construction	*9.4*
Others	*59.0*

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987**
Real Production[1]			(Growth rates)		
Total GDP	-5.6	-1.2	1.3	6.8	1.7
Agricultural sector	0.4	0.8	8.3	8.3	4.1
Mining sector	-8.4	4.7	-5.4	7.7	-4.7
Manufacturing sector	-1.7	4.6	4.9	7.0	1.6
Construction sector	-13.3	-34.4	1.6	9.8	2.0
Central Government			(Percentages of GDP)		
Current revenues	21.0	24.3	23.1	20.5	21.7
Current expenditures	15.6	16.6	16.0	14.4	16.0
Current savings	5.4	7.7	7.1	6.1	5.7
Capital expenditures	6.0	4.9	5.1	6.5	6.4
Deficit or surplus	-0.6	2.8	2.0	-0.4	-0.7
Domestic financing	2.1	-0.2	0.3	3.3	3.9
Money, prices and salaries			(Growth rates)		
Domestic credit	6.2	13.3	-7.7	30.1	27.0
Public sector	76.1	n.a.	n.a.	18.4	n.a.
Private sector	5.5	16.7	10.5	23.0	29.8
Money supply (M1)	20.7	23.8	12.5	22.9	35.7
Consumer prices (annual average)	6.3	12.2	11.4	11.6	28.1
Real wages	-7.2	-7.6	0.3	n.a.	n.a.
Exchange rate			(Annual Average)		
Official rate (national currency units per dollar)	4.30	7.02	7.50	7.50	14.50
Real effective exchange rate (Index 1980 = 100)	91.0	115.5	110.3	116.0	177.2
Terms of trade (Index 1980 = 100)	104.0	116.0	108.0	65.0	81.0
Balance of payments			(Millions of dollars)		
Current account balance	4,427.8	5,418.2	3,086.6	-2,012.0	-317.0
Merchandise balance	8,161.8	8,704.4	6,790.6	814.2	2,057.0
Merchandise exports (FOB)	14,570.5	15,966.6	14,178.2	8,648.6	10,487.0
Merchandise imports (FOB)	6,408.7	7,262.2	7,387.6	7,834.4	8,430.0
Net services	-3,523.4	-3,149.9	-3,576.0	-2,733.5	-2,320.0
Transfers	-210.6	-137.4	-127.9	-92.7	-54.0
Capital account (net)	-3,830.2	-4,156.4	-1,457.0	-1,703.4	-802.0
Change in net reserves (- = increase)	-329.3	-1,585.7	-1,328.1	3,933.6	1,119.0
External public debt			(Millions of dollars)		
Disbursed debt	37,260.0	36,216.9	34,709.9	33,891.2	32,504.0
Debt service actually paid[2]	3,754.0	3,778.3	2,754.1	4,183.5	n.a.
Interest payments/export of goods and NFS			(Percentages)		
	21.6	20.0	28.1	32.6	25.1

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* The sources for the data contained in this table are listed on page 525.

** Preliminary estimate.

[1] At market prices.

[2] Long-term debt exclusively.

n.a. Not available.

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Table 1. Total Population and Growth Rates, by Country, 1960–1987

						Annual Growth Rates[1]		
	1960	1970	1980	1986	1987*	1961-70	1971-80	1981-87
Country	(Thousands of persons)					(Percentages)		
Argentina	20,616	23,962	28,237	30,737	31,137	1.5	1.7	1.4
Bahamas	113	171	210	228	231	4.2	2.1	1.4
Barbados	231	239	254	267	270	0.3	0.6	0.9
Bolivia	3,428	4,325	5,570	6,548	6,730	2.4	2.6	2.7
Brazil	72,594	95,847	121,286	138,493	141,452	2.8	2.4	2.2
Chile	7,614	9,504	11,145	12,327	12,536	2.2	1.6	1.7
Colombia	15,538	20,803	25,794	29,323	29,942	3.0	2.2	2.2
Costa Rica	1,236	1,731	2,284	2,716	2,791	3.4	2.8	2.9
Dominican Republic	3,231	4,423	5,697	6,565	6,716	3.2	2.6	2.4
Ecuador	4,413	6,051	8,123	9,647	9,923	3.2	3.0	2.9
El Salvador	2,570	3,588	4,525	4,846	4,934	3.4	2.3	1.2
Guatemala	3,964	5,246	6,917	8,195	8,434	2.8	2.8	2.9
Guyana	569	709	865	971	988	2.2	2.0	1.9
Haiti	3,675	4,500	5,413	6,033	6,147	2.0	1.9	1.8
Honduras	1,935	2,627	3,662	4,531	4,679	3.1	3.4	3.6
Jamaica	1,629	1,869	2,170	2,357	2,391	1.4	1.5	1.4
Mexico	38,020	52,771	70,416	81,201	83,039	3.3	2.9	2.4
Nicaragua	1,493	2,053	2,771	3,384	3,501	3.2	3.0	3.4
Panama[2]	1,105	1,487	1,956	2,227	2,274	3.0	2.8	2.2
Paraguay	1,773	2,351	3,147	3,807	3,922	2.9	3.0	3.2
Peru	9,931	13,193	17,295	20,208	20,727	2.9	2.7	2.6
Suriname	290	372	352	355	357	2.5	−0.6	0.2
Trinidad & Tobago	843	1,027	1,068	1,130	1,144	2.0	0.4	1.0
Uruguay	2,538	2,808	2,908	3,034	3,057	1.0	0.4	0.7
Venezuela	7,502	10,604	15,024	17,792	18,272	3.5	3.5	2.8
Latin America	**206,851**	**272,261**	**347,089**	**396,922**	**405,594**	**2.8**	**2.5**	**2.3**

[1] Cumulative growth.

[2] Population for former Canal Zone included from 1980. Growth rate for 1971-1980 will be slightly higher than for comparable populations.

* Preliminary estimate.

Source: Latin American Demographic Center, Santiago, Chile.

Table 2. Urban and Rural Population, by Country, 1960–1987

(Thousands of persons)

Country	1960			1970			1980			1987*			Population Growth Rates[1] Urban			Rural
	Urban	Rural	% Urban	Urban	Rural	% Urban	Urban	Rural	% Urban	Urban	Rural	% Urban	1961-70	1971-80	1981-87	1981-87
													(Percentages)			
Argentina	15.172	5.444	73.6	18,796	5.166	78.4	23.434	4,803	83.0	26.879	4.258	86.3	2.2	2.2	2.0	−1.7
Bahamas	79	34	69.9	98	73	57.3	123	87	58.6	143	88	61.9	2.2	2.3	2.2	0.2
Barbados	144	87	62.3	154	85	64.4	189	65	74.4	224	46	83.0	0.7	2.1	2.5	−4.8
Bolivia	887	2.541	25.9	1,652	2.673	38.2	2.489	3,081	44.7	3.340	3.390	49.6	6.4	4.2	4.3	1.4
Brazil	33.068	39.526	45.6	53.531	42.316	55.9	81.565	39.721	67.3	102.129	39.323	72.2	4.9	4.3	3.3	−0.1
Chile	5.021	2,593	65.9	7.135	2.369	75.1	8.935	2,210	80.2	10.403	2.133	83.0	3.6	2.3	2.2	−0.5
Colombia	7.467	8.071	48.1	12,328	8.475	59.3	17.107	8.687	66.3	21.203	8.739	70.8	5.1	3.3	3.1	0.1
Costa Rica	410	826	33.2	672	1,059	38.8	1.026	1,258	44.9	1.385	1.406	49.6	5.1	4.3	4.4	1.6
Dominican Republic	1.138	2.093	35.2	1.735	2.688	39.2	2.904	2,793	51.0	4.001	2,715	59.6	4.3	5.3	4.7	−0.4
Ecuador	1.515	2,898	34.3	2.393	3.658	39.5	3.825	4,298	47.1	5.281	4.642	53.2	4.7	4.8	4.7	1.1
El Salvador	935	1.635	36.4	1.416	2.172	39.5	1.999	2.526	44.2	2.353	2.581	47.7	4.2	3.5	2.4	0.3
Guatemala	1.347	2.617	34.0	1.803	3.443	34.4	2.536	4.381	36.7	3.226	5.208	38.2	3.0	3.5	3.5	2.5
Guyana	160	409	28.1	167	542	23.6	203	662	23.5	265	723	26.8	0.4	2.0	3.9	1.3
Haiti	388	3.287	10.6	889	3.611	19.8	1.248	4,165	23.1	1.590	4.557	25.9	8.6	3.5	3.5	1.3
Honduras	436	1.499	22.5	736	1.891	28.0	1.314	2.348	35.9	1.937	2,742	41.4	5.4	6.0	5.7	2.2
Jamaica	381	1,248	23.4	789	1.080	42.2	954	1,216	44.0	1,187	1.204	49.6	7.6	1.9	3.2	−0.1
Mexico	19.296	18.724	50.8	31.135	21.636	59.0	46.052	24.364	65.4	57.827	25.212	69.6	4.9	4.0	3.3	0.5
Nicaragua	622	871	41.7	965	1,088	47.0	1.492	1,279	53.8	2.054	1.447	58.7	4.5	4.5	4.7	1.8
Panama[2]	441	664	39.9	707	780	47.5	964	992	49.3	1.148	1.126	50.5	4.8	3.1	2.5	1.8
Paraguay	603	1.170	34.0	871	1.480	37.0	1.215	1.932	38.6	1.593	2.329	40.6	3.7	3.4	3.9	2.7
Peru	4.630	5.301	46.6	7.660	5.533	58.1	11.109	6.186	64.2	14.165	6.562	68.3	5.2	3.8	3.5	0.8
Suriname	137	153	47.2	218	154	58.6	220	132	62.5	231	126	64.7	4.8	0.1	0.7	−0.7
Trinidad & Tobago	303	540	35.9	502	525	48.9	555	513	52.0	593	551	51.8	5.2	1.0	1.0	1.0
Uruguay	1.947	591	76.7	2.301	507	81.9	2.437	471	83.8	2.597	460	85.0	1.7	0.6	0.9	−0.3
Venezuela	5.104	2.398	68.0	7,617	2,987	71.8	11.409	3,615	75.9	14.338	3.934	78.5	4.1	4.1	3.3	1.2
Latin America	**101.631**	**105,220**	**49.1**	**156,269**	**115,992**	**57.4**	**225,304**	**121,785**	**64.9**	**280,091**	**125,503**	**69.1**	**4.4**	**3.7**	**3.2**	**0.4**

[1] Compound growth.

[2] See footnote in Table A-1.

* Preliminary estimate.

Source: IDB estimates based on country sources 1960-1969, Latin American Demographic Center from 1970.

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